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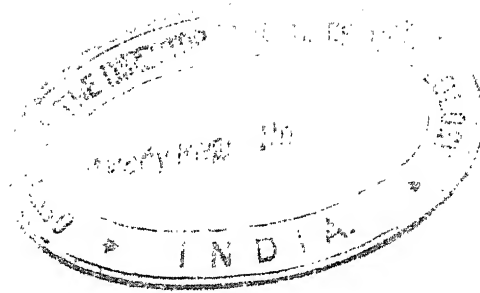
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JOURNAL
OF THE
NORTH-CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

1882.

NEW SERIES, Vol. XVII.

PART I.



891.05

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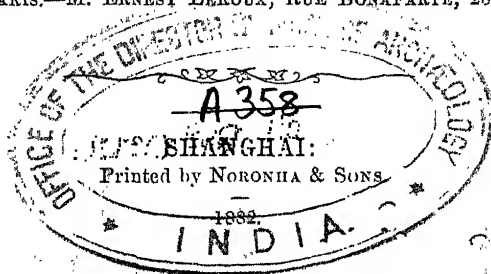
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CONTENTS.

	Page
ARTICLE I.—Notes on Chinese Composition. By HERBERT A. GILES	1
ARTICLE II.—On the Geology of the Neighbourhood of Nagasaki. By H. B. GUPPY, M.B.	23
ARTICLE III.—Notes on the South Coast of Saghalien. By GEO. C. ANDERSON	35
ARTICLE IV.—Annam and its Minor Currency. By ED. TODA	41
ARTICLE V.—The Hoppo-Book of 1753. By F. HIRTH, PH. D.....	221
Bibliography	237



JOURNAL
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ARTICLE I.

NOTES ON CHINESE COMPOSITION.*

BY

HERBERT A. GILES,

H. B. M.'s Consular Service.

THE Figures of Rhetoric have been scientifically classified
as follows:—

I.—Figures of Similarity.

- 1.—Simile.
- 2.—Metaphor.
- 3.—Personification.
- 4.—Allegory.

II.—Figures of Contiguity.

- 1.—Metonymy.
- 2.—Synecdoche.

III.—Figures of Contrast.

- 1.—Antithesis.
- 2.—Epigram.
- 3.—Hyperbole.
- 4.—Climax.
- 5.—Interrogation.

* Read before the Society on the 28th October, 1881.

6.—Exclamation.

7.—Apostrophe.

8.—Innuendo.

9.—Irony.

and it is in accordance with these divisions and sub-divisions that the following *Notes* have been prepared.

This subject has been treated more or less at length by several writers on Chinese composition; notably, by Prémare in his *Notitia Linguae Sinicae*, by Gonçalves in his *Arte China*, and by Watters in his *Essays on the Chinese Language*. Neither, however, of the above-mentioned three authors have attempted anything like classification; Prémare and Gonçalves having mixed up Figures of Rhetoric with Figures of Syntax, indiscriminately, while Watters in his otherwise scholarly and valuable *Essays* seems to have included all figures of similarity and contiguity under the one head of metaphor. For instance, Gonçalves gives under *Syntaxe Figurada* (p. 179) Climax, Metaphor, and Metonymy, as well as a whole host of such figures as Polysyndeton, Epanadiplosis, Antanaclasis, etc., etc., legacies from the schoolmen of ancient Greece, who by their pedantic refinements would have reduced the art of rhetoric to the level of a mechanical toy. And Watters (*China Review*, V., p. 215) speaks of "that kind of metaphor by which the part is made to represent the whole or the individual the species," this being of course the separate figure of synecdoche; while of the three illustrations adduced, namely, 名 for person or individual, 門 for sect or school of philosophy, and 肉 for pork, only the last one falls under the head of synecdoche, the two first being excellent examples of metonymy.

CLASS I.

1. *Simile*.—This figure consists simply in likening one thing to another. The things compared must, however, be different in kind; and the comparison must not be pushed to excess, or it degenerates into hyperbole (*q. v.*).

The choice of similes by Chinese writers presents but few points of special interest, being in fact, with due allowance for difference of environment, almost identical with that dictated by the canons of western literary taste. Life is compared with a dream, death with sleep, rosy cheeks with peach-blossoms, etc., etc.

E. G. 瞳人如漆: eyes as black as lacquer.

輻輳如雲: spokes and axles like clouds (in number); *sc.* many chariots. See *synecdoche*.

嘴似刀: a mouth like a knife; *sc.* cutting in speech.

淚如雨下: her tears fell like rain.

A tipsy man is said to be 醉如泥 "as drunk as mud," in reference to a certain marine creature which when taken out of the water lies like a lump of mud, thus affording an instance of a simile within a simile.

The poet Li T'ai-poh likened man in his mortal state to the dust on the high road, blown hither and thither at the caprice of every changing wind:—

人生無根蒂
飄如陌上塵

He likened the moon-beams playing on the floor round his bed to hoar-frost lying on the ground:—

床前月明光
疑是地上霜

He also compared the human face with the flowers of the garden, and found that neither yielded in beauty or expression to the other:—

花面不相饒

So, too, we read in the *Hung-lou-mêng* (ch. VI.) of P'ing-'rh, that 花容月貌 she was as beautiful as a flower and as bright-looking as the moon.

2. *Metaphor*.—Some readers may possibly be glad to be reminded that a metaphor is simply a simile in a word, the

metaphorical application of the word being altogether foreign to that in which it is commonly employed.

Of all figures of speech this is the one most constantly to be met with in Chinese literature, a fact to be ascribed in a great measure to the peculiar nature of the written language. For instance, the Chinese say 鐵證 "iron proofs" for the more expanded "proofs as irresistible as iron," reducing the simile to a metaphor by a process of condensation which is the alpha of success in every department of Chinese composition. Thus we have

柳腰: a willow waist.

櫻唇: cherry lips.

雞肋人: a "fowl's sinew" man; *sc.* a very thin man.

蠅頭事: a "fly's head" affair; *sc.* tiny, much as we say "pin's head."

山脚: the *foot* of the hill.

事乃寢: and so the matter *slept*; *sc.* dropped.

父母官: "father and mother officials"; *sc.* magistrates who are entrusted with the more immediate welfare of the people at large.

偶有所欲意一萌而婢已致之: whenever he wanted anything, the thought would hardly *sprout* before the maid had brought it to him.

免貽笑柄: so as to leave no *handle* for ridicule.

沐雨櫛風: washed by the rain and combed by the wind (said of the hardships of travel).

斗室: "a bushel room"; *sc.* a small room, no bigger than a bushel measure.

斗字: "bushel characters"; *sc.* enormous characters, as big as a bushel measure.

Mixed metaphors are to be found in Chinese as in other languages, occurring sometimes in the works of the best authors. The following example is taken from the writings of Lan Lu-chow:—

平地興無風之波: to stir up windless waves upon
a level ground; *sc.* to make needless trouble.

3. *Personification*.—This figure is also known as *prosopopæia*. It consists in attributing life and mind to inanimate things. Thus, 天 “heaven,” which was originally nothing more than the blue æther overhead (*cf.* the Taoist form 靄), has become endowed under the influence of superstition with the form and attributes of a human being. The people speak of 老天爺 “the old gentleman of the sky,” and Han Wên-kung in the most famous of all his polished essays writes

上天鑒臨: I call God to witness.

And à propos of a story in the *Liao Chai* narrating the total destruction by thunder of a virtuous family, the commentator remarks that he thought it was only wicked people who were thus visited, adding “Truly the muddles of God Almighty are many indeed!” 天公之憤憤不已多乎. In another passage, however, referring to the preservation of a notably filial son out of the wreck of seventeen or eighteen entire cities destroyed by an earthquake, the same writer says “After this who will say that God Almighty does not know black from white?” 誰謂天公無皂白耶.

Earth is not unfrequently personified in a similar manner; *e. g.* 終日被人欺神明天地知 “and if after all men do oppress you, the spirits will see it and Heaven and Earth will know it.” Hence too such phrases as 后地 “queen Earth,” to which may be added 雹神 the “God of Hail,” 瘟神 or 瘟鬼 the “Angel of Pestilence,” and 海龍王 “Neptune” (*sc.* the sea) also used in the slang sense of “Davy Jones’ locker.”

4. *Allegory*.—An allegory is simply a metaphor expanded and sustained through all its parts. It is impossible here to do more than indicate where specimens of Chinese allegories may be found in translation. The 馬說 of Han Wên-kung appeared in the *Shanghai Courier* of 12th July, 1879: “Sleep-

land," 睡鄉記, by Su Tung-p'o, and "Hunger-land," 餓鄉記, by Lan Lu-chou, were given in vol. VI., No. 6, of the *China Review*, and several good examples will be found in the *Liao Chai*, notably "The Wolf Dream," 夢狼. It may not be uninteresting, however, to note here the Chinese equivalents of "metaphor," "allegory," etc.; more especially as considerable confusion has prevailed hitherto among sinologues as to the proper employment even of their own native terminology. For instance, Dr. Williams in his *Syllabic Dictionary*, p. 1128, translates 寓言 "metaphorical, by metonymy," thus attributing to a single term the meanings of two quite distinct rhetorical figures. On pp. 973 and 1129 he further renders 借意 "metaphorically, in a figure," and 喻言 "a metaphor etc.," respectively.

As regards 借意, *lit.* "to borrow the sense," there can be but little doubt that it is in every way a most apt analogue of "metaphor," to which figure its use would seem to be exclusively confined, and it matters little that I have no quotations ready to hand in support of this statement.

As regards 喻, abundant proofs are to be found showing that when employed by competent writers it has invariably the sense of "illustration."

E. G.: 請以戰喻 "Let me take an illustration from war" (Mencius).

以蠡測海喻人之小見 "To measure the sea with a gourd is a phrase illustrative of persons with small mental capacity"; *sc.* those who would attempt the impossible. See the 幼學.

此言雖小可以喻大矣 "This proverb, although trivial in itself, may be used in illustration of important matters." See T'ang Mêng-lai's preface to the *Liao Chai*.

特假此以喻大道耳 "specially availed of in order to illustrate the Great Doctrine." See

preface to the 西域記, with reference to Hsüan Chuang and his travels.

厄之喻曰魚遊釜中: a state of danger is illustrated by the phrase "a fish in a frying-pan."

思慕喻曰一日三秋: a state of longing is illustrated by the phrase "one day like three autumns."

急之喻曰捧漏沃蕉: a state of haste is illustrated by the phrase "carry a colander to water bananas."

To these examples may be added the use of 意拾喻言 as a translation of "Æsop's Fables," by the learned Mun Mong. Scientifically speaking, a fable is a short allegory; but the Chinese have never classified so accurately as that, and are content to regard fables simply as anecdotes of fiction, without reference to their strictly allegorical character.

As regards 寓, we may safely write it off as the correct translation of "allegory," as witness the following instances:—

南花多寓言之蘊: the *Nan-hua* (by Chuang-tzū) is full of abstruse allegories. See preface to the 西域記.

考城隍寓言也: the story of *K'ao Ch'êng-huang* is allegorical. See comment on story No. 1 of the *Liao Chai*,

and a final example in which both 喻 and 寓 occur in the same sentence:—

鯤鵬之喻托物寓言: in the illustration of the leviathan changed into a roc, these creatures are employed allegorically. See commentary to the *Nan-hua-ch'ing* (ad init.).

CLASS II.

1. *Metonymy*.—By this figure one word is put for another; the word substituted being, in general terms, an understood accompaniment of the other, or having some existing connection with it.

E. G.: 光陰 “light and shade”; *sc.* time.

蟒袍 “dragon robes”; *sc.* the office of State to which the right of wearing such robes belongs.

白首 “white head”; *sc.* an old man. *Cf.* “gray-beard.”

鍋開 “the pot boils”; *i. e.* the water in it boils.

於是履易交錯 “thereupon ensued a great hurrying to and fro of shoes and slippers”; *sc.* “of persons.”

白粲 “the white food”; *sc.* rice.

孔方 “the round and square”; *sc.* the cash, which is round, with a square hole in the middle.

春鋤 “the pound and hoe”; *sc.* the paddy-bird, so called from the peculiar movements of its head and neck when searching for food in the fields.

黑甜 “the dark and sweet”; *sc.* sleep.

The following is an example of the matter put by metonymy for the materiate:—

無半寸防身之鐵 “without half an inch of iron to defend ourselves with”; precisely as in English we often speak of the steel, meaning of course weapons made of that metal.

Euphemism, which consists in veiling offensive subjects with polite phraseology, is a sub-head of metonymy; and so also is that nameless figure by which words are employed in a sense only to be understood by reference to some historical fact, some quotation either in poetry or in prose, or other similar key. Of the latter, the following are examples:—

大夫 “great officer”; *sc.* the pine-tree, so called because the First Universal Emperor (B. C. 221) once sheltered himself from a storm under a group of five pines, and in recognition of their services conferred upon them the title of the “five great officers.”

此君 “this prince” or “this gentleman”; *sc.* the bamboo, so called because when an ancient worthy was asked why he planted so many bamboos around his dwelling, he replied 何可一日無此君 “How can one be a single day without this gentleman?” in allusion to the extended use of the bamboo in almost every department of Chinese every day life.

以臥龍自任 “offered himself for the post of sleeping dragon”; *sc.* as commander-in-chief, the famous general Chu-ko Liang having lived in his youth at a place called Sleeping Dragon Hill.

Of euphemism, instances occur most frequently in connection with death and burial. Thus “to die” is 謝世 *to excuse oneself from the world*, or 決疣 *to burst the tumour*; “grave-clothes” are 壽衣 *clothes of old age*; “the grave” is 夜臺 *the terrace of night* on 佳城 *the beautiful city*, etc., etc. Of the same class are 大辟 and 正法 for capital punishment, and such others as 溫柔鄉, 破瓜, 相公, 大便, 小便,* 出恭, 行房, 敦倫,† 櫻梅釘, 子孫塋, 子孫堂, etc., etc., the name of which is legion.

* Hence, a petty official is never spoken of as 小弁, from the awkward identity of sound.

† I have once before drawn attention to the unfortunate selection of these two characters to express the sounds *Lon-don* in the Chinese designation of the London Missionary Society.

2. *Synecdoche*.—This figure appears under various forms and in various disguises of language. Generally speaking, it may be defined as a rhetorical trope by which the part is put for the whole, or the species for the genus, and *vice versa*.

E. G.: 無一椽一人 “not a rafter (*sc.* house) nor a man left.” Said of a deserted site.

食指日千計 “a thousand fingers (*i. e.* one hundred persons) eating daily [at his table].”
Cf. “so many *mouths* to feed.”

馬千蹄美人百袂 “a thousand hoofs of horses and a hundred sleeves of girls”; *sc.* 250 horses and 50 young ladies. *Cf.* “so many *head* of cattle.”

池鱗皆龍族 “the scales (*sc.* fish) in that pond were all of the dragon family.”

毛羽同類 “same species as hair or feathers,” *i. e.* an animal or a bird—a brute beast.

百姓 “the hundred names”; *sc.* the people.

瓜斯以待 “wait until next melon season”; *sc.* next year.

三秋 “three autumns”; *sc.* three years. *Cf.* “a youth of twenty summers.”

十六寒暑 “sixteen colds and hots,” *i. e.* winters and summers; *sc.* sixteen years.

It is by *synecdoche* that we apply numbers to things in themselves “not estimable with numerical precision.”

E. G.: 七兮喜三兮不 “seven parts glad, three parts not”; *sc.* more glad than sorry.

By *synecdoche*, too, the names of celebrated personages are often substituted for the particular qualities by which they acquired their reputation. Thus, the names of 毛嬙 *Mao Ch'iang* and 西子 *Hsi Tzŭ*, two famous beauties of antiquity, are frequently put for loveliness in the abstract.

The following sentence aptly exhibits the facility with which

- in the Chinese language a number of figures may be crowded into a small space:—

鳳鬃雲轡

Here we have two distinct metaphors and two examples of synecdoche, all within the compass of four words. These characters mean literally “wind manes clouds reins,” or in a more expanded form “[swift as the] wind manes [used by synecdoche for *horses*, and countless as the] clouds reins [used by synecdoche for *chariots*]”; that is, “swift horses and countless chariots.” Similar examples are common enough in Chinese literature, and are easily understood by the general reader. Compare such a sentence as “*Le vin rit dans le cristal*,” an instance of metaphor and metonymy occurring in the short space of six words.

CLASS III.

1. *Antithesis*.—This figure consists in the institution of a contrast. It enters very largely into all kinds of Chinese composition.

E. G.: 貧而樂: poor but happy.

The above is an expression of contrast under its simplest form; a more elaborate example would be

君受虛誚我被寬傷: you got unsubstantial curses,
but I received a real wound,

in which sentence each of the last four words are directly opposed either in form or sense to the corresponding character of the first four.

As a specimen of secondary antithesis, *i. e.* where the antagonism of the parts opposed is weaker than in the examples given above, we may take

以食愈飢以學愈愚: cure hunger with food;
ignorance, by study.

Chinese proverbs and household words derive much of their point from the skilful use of this figure.

E. G.: 生勞不如死逸: it's better to be dead and happy than living and miserable.

民可使由之不可使知之: the people may be led, but they cannot be made to understand.

先到爲君後到爲臣: he who arrives first is prince, he who follows is minister only.

先炊先餐: first at the fire, first with his food, *i. e.* first come first served.

These last two sayings, the first of which is of very varied application, exemplify the antithesis (1) expressed and (2) understood, the contrast being in both cases between 先 and 後 "first" and "afterwards," though in the latter instance the actual antithesis is not visible in the text. To rhetorical antithesis, it may be mentioned *en passant*, an antagonism is necessary which in merely structural antithesis often almost entirely disappears.

As an instance of tersely-elegant antithesis of a structural character, the following are selected from a long list:—

晝同几夜共榻: the same table by day, the same bed at night. (Said of inseparable friends.)

此處夏無大暑冬無大寒花無斷時: here the summer is never excessively hot, nor the winter excessively cold, while flowers bloom all the year round. (From a description of the Isles of the Immortals.)

來是是非人去是非者: he comes and abuses others, and then goes away and abuses the person [to whom he had just been speaking].

A special kind of phraseology, peculiar as far as I know to the Chinese language, consists of abstracts formed by the simple juxtaposition of concretes.

E. G.: 來往: *lit.* "come go," signifies the mutual inter-

course of friends, or any similar form of correspondence.

多少: *lit.* "many few," is used for "number" in the abstract.

The following examples will be sufficient to illustrate the use of antithesis in Chinese poetry:—

有心栽花花不發
無意插柳柳成陰

You may set with all care,—yet the flow'et will fade,
While the chance-planted willow throws o'er you its shade.

萬時不如杯在手
人生幾見月當頭

The cup's in the hand: seize the hour ere 'tis fled;
How seldom in life is the moon overhead!

Disarrangement of the strictly antithetical order of words is comparatively rare.

E. G.: 我不以貧富爲有無: I am not talking about what the rich can afford and the poor can not.

規矩方圓之至也: the compasses and the square are the embodiment of the rectangular and the round.

There exists one single sentence in the Chinese language for which, like *silver* with regard to rhyme, no corresponding antithesis can be constructed. It is

烟鎖池塘柳: smoke envelops the willows by the pond.

In the characters here employed all the five elements are already present, thus leaving according to Chinese rules no field from which to draw corresponding antithetical terms.

2. *Epigram*.—Epigram is a term which, like several others in rhetorical use, has been modified by lapse of time. It seems to have been originally applied to inscriptions, and from that to have developed into "a short poem containing some single

thought pointedly expressed," taking in on its way all kinds of titles, advertisements, superscriptions, etc., etc., which might afford scope for the play of epigrammatic wit.

An epigram need not of course be a poem, though it should be short; and it should be, strictly speaking, of such a nature as to rouse the mind by some "conflict or contradiction between the form of the language and the meaning really conveyed." Thus it will be seen that the boundary-line between Epigram and Antithesis is not very clearly defined; unless we confine ourselves, in common with the best authorities, to such specimens as are distinguished by brevity and some play on words therein contained. That Chinaman was of an epigrammatic turn of mind who announced some years ago that

康熙字典有一個錯字

In K'ang Hsi's dictionary there is a word wrong.

setting all the literati of Kiang-su by the ears until some one discovered that the word "wrong" was the word in question.

It may be mentioned in parentheses that the Pun is a sub-head of Epigram; and for want of a better example we may take the old joke of the man who declared he was what sounded like 進士 *chin shih* "a graduate of the highest degree," but which he afterwards explained to be 近視眼 *chin shih yen* "near-sighted"; or that of the bashful young man who was likened to a country carpenter because he had only 一鋸 "one saw," which has precisely the same sound in Chinese as 一句 "one sentence," sc. nothing to say for himself.

It was decidedly epigrammatic to say that men mostly prefer

自己的文章人家的老婆

Their own compositions, but their friends' wives.

So also it was an epigram by which a certain gentleman notified the newly-engaged tutor for his son that he should not squeeze the hand of the waiting-maid who brought him breakfast and dinner:—

奴手爲擎,先生以後勿擎奴手.

The tutor's reply was in a similar strain:—

人言爲信,東家以後勿信人言.

3. *Hyperbole*.—黑子彈丸極言至小之邑: "a black speck," or "a pill"; these are hyperbolical expressions for a very small District. (See the 幼學.)

Hyperbole is the figure by which anything is excessively magnified or diminished, beyond the limits of truth. Of such a kind is the phrase 斗室 (see *Metaphor*) for "a house no bigger than a bushel measure." Examples are common enough.

E. G.: 儼若山岳目如兩日: he was as tall as a mountain, and his eyes were like two suns.

駭如天降: as scared as if the sky had fallen.

疾若乘風: swift as if riding on the wind.

鼾呼雷動: he snored with a noise like thunder.

傾國: a nation overthrower; *sc.* a very beautiful woman.

萬里長城: the 10,000 *li* rampart; *sc.* the Great Wall.

Apropos of 10,000 *li* (say 3,000 miles) the landscapes of the celebrated painter Wang Fei were said to have been so artfully executed that the eye could wander over scenery to this extent (萬里爲遙) all within the narrow area of an ordinary fan.

The Chinese delight in hyperbole. They speak of their children as "dogs," of their friends as "princes," of the Heir Apparent as "a thousand autumns," of the Emperor as "Lord of Ten Thousand Years," and of China as "all beneath the canopy of the sky." The records of their antiquity teem with examples; while the records themselves go back to a period of 2,269,360 years ago.

Mencius, on one occasion, took the trouble to point out that hyperbole was a figure of rhetoric, and that its terms should not be literally construed. "We must not understand," said he, "that passage in the *Odes*—'of the black-haired people of Chow, not a single one was left 周餘黎民靡有子遺'—in its literal sense."

4. *Climax*.—Of this, the "ladder" figure, so called because the mind is carried, as it were rung by rung, up an ascending

scale until the final point is reached, the 大學 *Ta Hsüo* furnishes no inconsiderable number of examples. E. G.:—

欲治其國者先齊其家,欲齊其家者先修其身,
欲修其身者先正其心,欲正其心者
先誠其意,欲誠其意者先致其知
“[The ancients] desirous of good govern-
ment in the State, began by good order
in the family; to attain good order in the
family, each began by attending to his
own personal demeanour; to attain to
proper personal demeanour, it was neces-
sary to rectify the heart; to rectify the
heart, it was necessary to refine the
thoughts; and to refine the thoughts, it
was necessary to extend knowledge.”

5. *Interrogation*.—This figure, employed to surround a proposition with extra rhetorical force, is commonly employed by Chinese authors. The very first chapter of the Confucian *Discourses* opens with three good examples. The first is—

學而時習之不亦說乎

Lit. To learn, and from time to time to practice (what is learnt),
is not that pleasant?

The two following quotations are in a lighter style:—

受人數金便當淹禁死耶: because I have taken
a few pieces of a man's money, is he to
shut me up to death, eh?

我虽貧固簪纓之貫彼以執鞭發跡何敢遂媵敌:
though poor, I am descended from a
noble family, and shall this carter fellow
presume to take my daughter for his
concubine?

For two further examples, see *Personification*.

6. *Exclamation*.—Of this figure one example will doubtless suffice.

子曰莫我知也夫

“Alas!” said Confucius, “there is no one who appreciates me.”

Many similar instances are to be found (*e. g.*) in the 書經, where they are usually introduced by some such words as 嗚呼. So also the proverbial saying—

嗚呼哀哉
人死難猜.

7. *Apostrophe*.—This figure consists in suddenly addressing somebody, or something, absent, as if they were present. Of such kind are invocations to deities and devils, which are common enough and are generally prefaced by 祝曰, or 禱曰.

E. G.: 飲則酹地 祝曰河中溺鬼得飲: and when he drank, he would pour out a libation on the ground and utter the following invocation:—“Drink, too, ye drowned spirits of the river!”

For further examples, see the 書經 *passim*.

8. *Innuendo*.—When one Chinaman says that another reminds him of the fan used by the ruler of the Infernal Regions, he avails himself of an innuendo; for tradition has it that the fan in question is *black* inside, and black-heartedness has much the same signification in China as elsewhere. So also when he speaks of people or things as 廟貧 “temple wares” (*i. e.* the miscellaneous articles sold at stalls in temples on religious festivals), he is suggesting that they cannot be depended upon 靠不住. A paragraph in the *Shanghai Courier* recently noted the destruction by fire of an ice-house, and the writer very naturally remarked that it was the last place where he should have expected a fire to break out. Now the Chinese frequently use as an innuendo the phrase 火燒冰窖 “an ice-house burnt down,” as applied to events which seem to be a special manifestation of the will of Heaven 天意, or destiny. It is also an innuendo to liken a man to a lamp on the top of an 18-foot pole 丈八的燈台. Such a lamp

throws indeed its light to a distance, but leaves its own immediate neighbourhood in gloom 照遠不照近; and the *sous-entendu* is that the individual in question throws more light upon the faults of others than upon his own. It is an innuendo to call a man an "earthenware cock" 磁公雞, the implication being that you can't pull a hair out of him 一毛不拔, *sc.* that he is a stingy fellow. Degeneration in a family is hinted at by the phrase "a swan hatching ducks" 仙鶴養鴨子, and a cruel mandarin is often spoken of as a "blacksmith official" 鐵匠作官 whose only thought is to strike 只是打.

9. *Irony*.—It is well known that the sense now attached to this term is of comparatively modern date. Irony, in the time of Aristotle, signified "saying less than was meant," whereas we now understand by it "saying the opposite to what is meant," a figure known to the ancients as *Litotes*.

E. G.: 鬻妻子已大惠 "that you should sell your wife and child was already very kind of you,—" which words are spoken by an angry wife to whom her dissolute husband is about to do some further injury.

The above is irony direct; as an example of the indirect I may quote the following story from the *Liao Chai*. A virtuous young man goes to visit his elder brother who holds office in a distant part of the empire, and while residing in his yamên becomes aware of a very extensive system of bribery and corruption which is daily practised there, to the utter exclusion of anything at all like justice or impartiality. With tears in his eyes he reports what he has seen and heard to his brother, who however only laughs at him and says, 弟日居衡茅故不知仕途之關竅耳黜陟之權在上臺不在百姓何術復令上臺喜也 ... "My brother, your life has been spent in a cottage, and therefore you do not know the ins and outs of official life. We look for our advancement or dismissal to our superior officers, not to the people; hence, he who

gratifies those in authority over him is the good public servant. But if a man were to occupy himself with the interests of the people, how could he at the same time cause gratification to his superior officers?"

The irony in this passage is of course that of the author and not of the speaker in the dialogue.

ADDENDUM.

Ellipsis.—This figure belongs, strictly speaking, to the province of Grammar, though some writers have given it a place in treatises nominally confined to Rhetoric alone. The written and spoken languages of China teem with interesting examples. To begin with a simple instance: we generally find 查照 in place of the full expression 查考照對. So 西商 is an ellipsis which might at first sight be understood as applying to European merchants, and not, as is the case, to the native bankers of Shansi, who are also familiarly known as 老西兒 or 西老. Passing on to more recondite examples, oft-times difficult of expansion and occasionally even of explanation, we have

王矢不他: *lit.* Wang-arrow-not-he; *i. e.*, Wang swore he would never marry anybody else.

鳥窻洪案: *lit.* fowl-window-Hung-table; *i. e.*, she made a very good wife, the full expansion being, as given by a writer in the *China Mail*, "For many years she rose at cock-crow, as soon as dawn first glimmered through the window. She was as faithful as Mêng Kuang, the wife of Liang Hung, who, when eating, would raise the table up to her brow as a token of respect."

妾望君如歲: *lit.* concubine-long-prince-like-year; *i. e.*, "Every day has seemed a year to

me since you left," being of course an address from a wife to a husband.

A beginner might fairly stumble over 飭快, but the insertion of 馬 between the two characters makes the phrase easily intelligible as "ordered the constable." So also 緇黃 "dark-yellow" is no mean puzzle, until its expansion into 緇衣黃冠 "dark robes, yellow caps" points at once to the priests who are thus specially distinguished. But of all examples of ellipsis pure and simple, *i. e.* where the knowledge of no allusion 典故 is necessary to elucidate the sense, commend us to an example quoted in the *China Review* by Mr. Parker: 人一能之已百之 "If [any other] man can [do] it [in] one [day], [then] I [will give a] hundred [days to] it [rather than fail]."



E R R A T A.

Page 4 Line 2 for 'that' read 'the sense.'

„ 7 „ 13 „ 'Mun Mong' read 'Mun Mooy.'

„ 10 „ 8 from below, for 兮 read 分.

„ 11 „ 3 for 鳳 read 風.

„ 11 „ 12 from below, for 寬 read 實.

„ 16 „ 16 for 'employed' read 'intended.'

„ 16 „ 8 from below, for 蚩 read 雖.

„ 17 „ 12 „ „ „ 貧 „ 貨.

„ 18 „ 4 „ „ before 何術復令上臺喜也 insert
上臺喜便是好官愛百姓.



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ARTICLE II.

NOTES ON THE GEOLOGY OF THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NAGASAKI.*

BY H. B. GUPPY, M.B.,
SURGEON, R.N.

THE remarkable manner in which this part of the island of Kiusiu is cut up by its several gulfs into the three extended peninsulas of Simabara, Nagasaki, and Omura, is a feature in its surface-geography, which bears especial reference to the configuration of the region at no distant geological period. Although it is an elevated district, considered as a whole,—the hills in the more immediate vicinity of Nagasaki varying between 500 and 1,500 feet in height, while Mount Unzen in the Simabara peninsula rises to about 4,700 feet above the sea;—yet there are low-lying regions situated at the base of the peninsulas, which a depression of the land to the extent of about two hundred feet would completely submerge. That there has been an elevation of this amount at some recent period, is demonstrated by the occurrence of a loose bed of water-worn rock fragments, which is exposed at the top of a deep cutting, through which the Nagasaki road descends to the village of Tokeets; and the following description of the transformed topography of this region at that period is not a mere speculation of my own, but is founded on numerous observations made in the several localities concerned.

At such a period the Gulfs of Omura and Simabara by uniting would isolate a large region, extending from the present

* Read before the Society on the 31st March, 1882.

narrow entrance to the Gulf of Omura to the southernmost extremity of the Simabara Peninsula, and forming an island about forty miles in length. This would be again divided into four smaller islands in the following manner:—by the submergence of its low-lying isthmus the Simabara Peninsula would be transformed into a mountainous island; whilst the sea, by occupying the line of the present road between Tokeets and Nagasaki, would completely disconnect the peninsula which forms the western side of the Gulf of Omura; and the Nagasaki Peninsula would in its turn form the southern prolongation of another island, produced by the formation of the Tokeets channel on west, and by the junction of the Gulf of Omura and Yagami Bay on the east, somewhere along the line of the present road between Yagami and the village of Isahaye; lastly, a fourth, though smaller, island would be formed by the Simabara strait on the east and by the Isahaye and Yagami channel on the west. In such a manner would this region now continuous be transformed into a group of large islands; and, that this was the actual condition of this region at a very recent geological period, I have not the slightest doubt.

Before treating of the subject proper of this paper, I must premise by observing that I shall limit myself to the more prominent geological features of this region; which, on account of the complexity of detail which it presents, requires for its more thorough examination a greater time than I was able to devote to it. Forming the axis or backbone of the base of the Nagasaki Peninsula, are beds of mica-schist and allied schistose rocks; which, whilst they are for the most part concealed on the hill-sides overlooking the town by masses of trachyte occasionally porphyritic, a dark felsitic trap, and agglomerate, are freely exposed to view on the eastern slope of the peninsula, more particularly in the vicinity of the village of Mogi. On crossing the harbour and ascending the hills on the western side, the same agglomerate and trachytic rocks are found; and although I was unable to find the mica-schist *in situ*, yet detached fragments of this rock gave evidence of its vicinity.

Turning to the district north of Nagasaki, we observe that the road from that town to Tokeets, as it skirts round the head of the harbour to cross the narrow isthmus of the Omura Peninsula, follows a line of cliff formed of agglomerate overlying a light-coloured friable trachyte; and long after the harbour is left behind, for a distance of from two to three miles, the road continues to skirt the base of this inland cliff, following in truth the line of the ancient channel already referred to in this paper. As one proceeds towards Tokeets, the trachyte assumes a more compact texture; and at a point where the road, which has previously been confined to a level plain, enters the hills, about four miles from Nagasaki, this rock exhibits a spheroidal structure, each spheroid being about three feet in diameter and enclosing within its concentric coats a nucleus of the size of a 32-lb. shot. A few steps further on, one observes an intrusion of trap, probably a phonolite: and from this point the trachyte, as exhibited in a slight declivity which has been carved or hewn out into niches for the reception of stone figures, assumes a darker colour. When about a mile and a half or two miles from Tokeets, the road, which has by this time reached its highest elevation from 175 to 200 feet above the sea, dips down into a deep cutting, at the top of which occurs the bed of water-worn rock-fragments which has been alluded to above. About half-way down the cutting, extensive dikes of a dark trap-rock—probably diabase—protrude through a quartz-porphry; whilst near the foot of the cutting, occurs another small dike of blue basalt: all these dikes, which trend in an east and west direction, are vertical protrusions. On approaching Tokeets, the trachyte again appears; and near the bend in the road which suddenly displays to view the picturesque bay of this village, this rock exhibits a porphyritic structure. Two huge masses of this porphyritic trachyte, which overlook the road, have received the name of “The Giant’s Head” from the Japanese, on account of the rude resemblance which they present to a human head and bust.

About half a mile to the east of the Tokeets road, lies the

hamlet of Meecheno, where exists a thermal spring. When I visited this spring in November 1879, I found its temperature, which was 74° F., to be 12° above that of the surrounding air: it had no odour, was quite clear, and, as the villagers informed me, was fit for drinking purposes: it contains, as I subsequently found, a moderate amount of lime in solution. To its existence the hamlet of Meecheno probably owes its being; and the inhabitants by conducting the water to a neighbouring bath-house employ artificial means to raise it to a temperature for bathing. The rock in the vicinity of the spring appears to be an "altered" argillite: whilst a very tough mottled phonolite occurs at the base of a hill to the eastward of Meecheno,—a granitic rock destitute of mica forming the summit,—and an "altered" argillite intervening between the two. In the bed of the stream, which flows from the lower end of the valley and crosses the Tokeets road about a mile and a quarter from the head of the harbour, I observed a highly calcareous and siliceous rock, followed in the lower portion of the stream by basaltic and trachytic porphyries.

An interesting traverse may be made along the road from Yagami to Isahaye,—a distance of eight or nine miles,—following the line of the original channel that once united the Gulf of Omura with Yagami Bay. The road between the villages of Heemi and Yagami displays in its cuttings agglomerate and beds of a fine-grained sandstone and shale which dip about 50° to the west. Proceeding by the road to Isahaye, one observes a light-coloured eurite to be the prevailing rock as far as the hamlet of Koga, about two and a half miles from Yagami. Beyond Koga, a region of trachytic porphyry begins;—specimens of this rock which I obtained exhibited fine crystals of glassy felspar. This trachyte is followed by a speckled sandstone* dipping to the north-west at an angle of 40° . On approaching the shore of the Gulf of Omura, beds of sand-

* This same speckled sandstone is to be observed in the hamlet of Koga, dipping about 45° to the eastward.

stone and shale are observed dipping 35° to the north-west: and as the road passes through the village of Kaieesa, about two miles from Isahaye, a dislocation of these beds is displayed in a cutting, which exhibits not only an alteration in the dip but a twisting round of the line of strike. I traced the sandstone and shale as far as the village of Isahaye. Striking off to the north-west in the direction of the town of Omura, about seven miles distant, the road for the first two miles lies along the same low-lying country, with fragments of a dark phonolite lying on the surface. It then crosses a hill elevated between 600 and 700 feet above the waters of the Gulf; a sandstone dipping gently to the south-south-east forms the lower two-thirds of this hill; whilst its summit displays a dark grey phonolite. Before reaching Omura the road crosses a succession of low hills, which exhibit at rare intervals a decomposed felspathic rock; whilst a dark pitchstone is to be observed in the hill overlooking the town.

Not the least interesting locality of the region to which this paper refers, is that of the Simabara Peninsula. This rugged promontory attains in the cloud-topped peaks of Unzen an elevation of not less than 4,700 feet above the sea* (measurement by aneroid). Tradition has located an active volcano on the summit of this mountain: and, that a similar belief is current at the present day, the following testimony will be sufficient to cite. The China and Japan Sea Directory, for as recent a period as 1873, refers to an active volcano in the centre of the peninsula, "over which a dark cloud of smoke usually rests;" whilst Dr. S. W. Williams in a "Lecture on Japan," published in the Journal of the North-China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society for May 1859, describes Mount Unzen as "a volcano still in action;" and lastly, we find a

* There is no measurement of the height of Mount Unzen given in the Admiralty chart. The only estimate I have been able to find is that of 3,500 feet, which I have derived from a "Lecture on Japan," by S. W. Williams, LL.D., published in the Journal of the N.-C. B. of the Royal Asiatic Society for May 1859: it is greatly under-estimated.

writer in the "Treaty Ports of China and Japan" describing the town of Simabara (Minato) as "backed by a huge mountain whence the hidden fires still send up a gentle stream of smoke on a cloudless day." There would appear to be some facts which explain this current belief: and history in truth relates, that in 1792 or 1793 (the date varies in different accounts) there was a violent volcanic eruption in this mountain, which, being attended by a most disastrous earthquake, not only devastated the neighbouring country, destroying 53,000 of the inhabitants, but is said to have been felt through the whole of Kiusiu, and to have permanently affected the adjacent coast-line and territory of the province of Higo. There is little doubt, but that the striking resemblance, which Unzen presents to a truncated cone, often capped by clouds, when viewed from the hills overlooking the village of Mogi, affords an explanation of the persistence of this popular error as to its present activity. For loth as I am to detract from the romance which has been vulgarly attached to the volcano of Simabara, I grieve to write, that not only did I observe that this mountain loses its volcanic profile when regarded from other points of view, but that having stood on one of Unzen's highest summits and having crossed the peninsula from west to east, I failed to find any signs of the existence of an active volcanic vent. Yet I may urge, that the occurrence on the western flanks of this mountain of the hot springs of Wobama, Kojeego, and Unzen, which are probably intimately connected in their past history with the disastrous earthquake of last century, does not entirely divest this mountainous Peninsula of Simabara of its claims to be included within the present dominion of Vulcan.

Commencing the ascent from the fishing-village of Wobama on the western shore of the peninsula, the path led me up through the zone of trees, which extends up the mountain slopes to a height of about 1,100 feet above the sea.* Rising gra-

* In the vicinity of Nagasaki the upper limit of the zone of trees is very marked when viewed from the town; its level being from 900 to 1,000 feet above the sea.

dually from a height of 1,700 feet to a level of 2,500 feet, the higher portion of the peninsula may be best described as an extended plateau, from which springs the double peak of Unzen which attains another 2,000 feet or more of elevation. Such are the more conspicuous physical features of this region. With regard to its more strictly geological characters, I may remark that a sanidine-trachyte, rendered porphyritic by the fine crystals of glassy felspar embedded in its matrix, is the prevailing rock on both the eastern and western slopes of this mountainous peninsula; and that it extends from the sea-level up to the eastern summit of the double peak. This porphyritic trachyte varies somewhat in its characters: on the east slopes, the matrix appears to be more feldspathic and is of a lighter colour than in the rock of the opposite side of the mountain; whilst regular crystals of hornblende are often associated with those of the sanidine, particularly in the neighbourhood of Minato: on the west slopes, the matrix is of a light bluish colour, and becomes strangely altered in the vicinity of the hot springs of Kojeego and Unzen,—a subject to be immediately considered.

Overlooking the populous town of Minato which is situated on the eastern shore of the Simabara Peninsula, there rises an abrupt desolate-looking hill which is completely detached from the main mountain-mass. The “why-and-wherefore” of its precipitous sides, the explanation of its peculiar form and of the strangeness of its situation, must have often afforded subjects for speculation to the casual visitor, if not to the inhabitants of the locality. It is in truth one of those hills, which—to employ the figurative language of Dr. Macculloch—“seem as if they had tumbled from the clouds.” Tradition avers—and tradition generally has something to say in these matters—that during one of the earthquakes which have devastated the district of Simabara, this hill was detached and parted asunder from the parent-mass. But whether this explanation is a satisfactory one, I had neither the time nor the opportunity to determine.

By far the most attractive localities for the mere sight-seer, are those of the hot sulphur-springs of Wobama, Kojeege, and Unzen. The hot-springs of Wobama, a fishing village to which I have already alluded as being situated on the west shore of the peninsula, occur close to the water's edge. A series of stone bathing-pools has been built around the springs;—the water of which evolves a large quantity of sulphuretted hydrogen, its unpleasant odour tainting the air of the neighbouring streets. Most of the bathing-pools are accessible to the sea at certain heights of the tide; and these are the baths most frequented by both real and imaginary invalids: their temperature I found to be 82° F., about 8° above the temperature of the surrounding air. On placing the thermometer in a bath which was inaccessible to the sea, it rose to 112° F., a temperature which appeared to be too high to permit of its general use amongst the frequenters of the springs.

I may best describe the sulphur-springs of Kojeege, which are elevated rather more than 2,000 feet above the sea, as bubbling up briskly at a temperature of 182° F. into a pool about fifteen yards across. The water, which is milky in appearance from the deposit of sulphides and the other products of the decomposed trachyte, exhales a powerful sulphureous odour: and after it has been allowed to run down into some baths in the hamlet of Kojeege, which is situated immediately below the springs, it becomes sufficiently reduced in temperature to allow of its being used for the purposes of bathing. The surface of the ground in the vicinity of the springs is warm, and often undermined; and I was informed that fatal accidents have sometimes occurred from the ground giving away beneath the feet.

A walk of about twenty minutes from Kojeege will bring the visitor to the hot springs of Unzen, where these phenomena are exhibited in their grandest form. Some time before arriving there he will have noticed dense clouds of white vapour ascending in the distance, and that the milky-looking streams over which he has to cross retain a portion of their original

warmth. His first impression of these hot springs of Unzen will hardly be a favourable one; and he will carry away with him a vivid recollection of "the dismal situation waste and wild" which was there presented to his view. Bubbling up furiously over a whitened and sterile surface of some acres are several boiling springs; whilst the atmosphere in their vicinity is powerfully impregnated with sulphureous vapours. The whitened crust which forms the surface is often so hot that even with a thick pair of boots on the feet it is necessary to be constantly changing one's ground; whilst it is pierced in many places by small holes, from which issue jets of steam that now and then remind the visitor rather sharply of their proximity. A thermometer, which I placed in one of the springs, rose to 202°F. ; but as this locality is elevated about 2,200 feet above the level of the sea, this observation represents an actual amount of heat of 6° below the boiling-point of this elevation— 208°F. —, a temperature which is probably attained at a short distance from the surface. The undermining of the ground has proceeded to such a degree in some places that there is a danger of the thin crust yielding underfoot; and to avoid a somewhat awkward introduction into the realms of Tartarus, it would be advisable to procure the services of an old Buddhist priest who resides in an adjacent temple.

The manner in which the sanidine-trachyte of the district has been decomposed and altered by the chemical and thermal influence of these hot springs,—a phenomenon exhibited on a lesser scale at Kojeege—, is worth a moment's consideration; and the visitor who may have previously stood in the midst of the Solfatara of Naples will be particularly impressed by the similarity in the appearance of the two localities, a resemblance which is due in both cases to the influence of sulphureous vapours on trachytic rocks. By the decomposition of the felspathic constituents and especially of the crystals of glassy felspar, the trachyte has become whitened and often laminated; and the most advanced degree of these changes may be observed in the thinned surface-crust around each spring, in the

masses of pure white rock much resembling the Cornish Kaolin which lie on the ground, and lastly in the whiteness of the adjacent cliffs and hill-slopes. Mr. Darwin in his "Geological Observations" describes a very similar change produced in a trachytic rock in the island of Terceira, one of the Azores, by the action of steam issuing from fissures.

Before leaving the subject of Simabara, I should refer to the long and narrow isthmus which connects its peninsula with the mainland of Kiusiu. The eastern half of this isthmus, which consists of a low and level tract of land well cultivated and dotted over with numerous hamlets and villages, is formed of the material arising from the degradation of the trachytic porphyry of Simabara; and in some cliffs, at present removed a short distance from the high-water line, I observed the same material to be occasionally stratified. But a small amount of depression would be required to submerge this low-lying portion of the isthmus; and doubtless there was a time, geologically recent, when the elevated peaks of Unzen formed a lofty island-mountain in the midst of the Gulf of Simabara,—a period when the extensive tracts of low-land which fringe the eastern and northern shores of the present peninsula were also covered by the waves. On the other hand, the surface of the western half of the isthmus is broken by groups of low hills, generally from 300 to 400 feet in height. Walking along the southern border of this neck of land, I observed the prevailing rock in this portion of the isthmus to be a dark trap finely speckled with felspar.

I will conclude this paper with a description of the geology of Mogi Bay,—a locality which affords, in my opinion, a key to the geological history of the whole neighbourhood of Nagasaki. Whilst the southern border of the bay is composed of the schistose rocks of the district which extend down to the sea, the observer will meet with formations of a very different character on the opposite side. The point immediately north of the village of Mogi is formed of a large dike of columnar

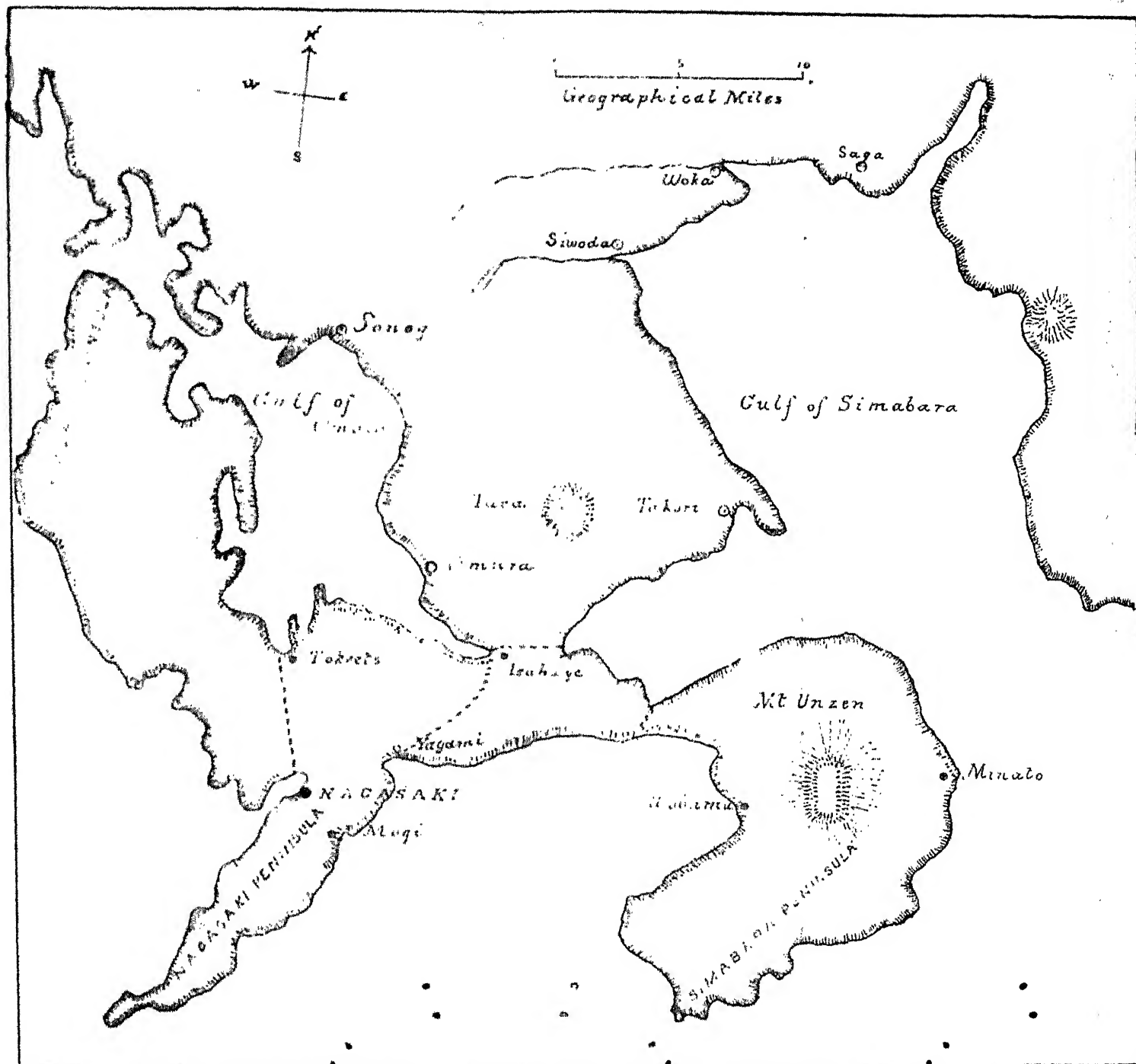
basalt, which must have been originally protruded in an easterly direction at an angle of 15° with the horizon. Adhering to the upper surface of the basalt are fragments of a curious quartzose rock, probably an "altered" mica schist. On rounding this point one enters a small cove, on the northern side of which beds of fawn-coloured shale and fine-grained sandstone, and of a rock intermediate in character, appear in the cliffs dipping to the N.W.—W.N.W. at an angle of from five to seven degrees.

In these recent beds the leaves of dicotyledonous plants are beautifully preserved, the venation in particular being retained in a very perfect condition. In some places I observed the fine layers of the shale to be curiously contorted,—an indication of their having been subjected to some disturbance previous to their consolidation. At the base of the sedimentary beds occurs a thin layer of conglomerate, which is composed of fragments of schistose rock and of the "altered" rock before alluded to. Overlying and conformable to these shales and sandstones are a series of bedded volcanic agglomerates, formed of fragments of a porphyritic trachyte and occasionally of a schistose rock embedded in a matrix of volcanic tuff, which varies in colour from white to grey. Thin seams of this tuff are interstratified with the sandstone and shale previously described: and the same agglomerate and tuffs, bedded and inclined 15° to the north-east, are to be observed forming the steep cliffs on the northern border of Mogi Bay. It is worthy of note that some hand-specimens of the porphyritic trachyte from this volcanic agglomerate appear to me identical in their characters with the trachyte of the Simabara Peninsula.

From the foregoing description of the leading features presented by the district of Mogi Bay, it will be manifest that we find there some important circumstantial evidences of the order of succession of the different formations, which will be of some service in unravelling the geology of the other portions of this region. First in order of age must be placed the schistose rocks

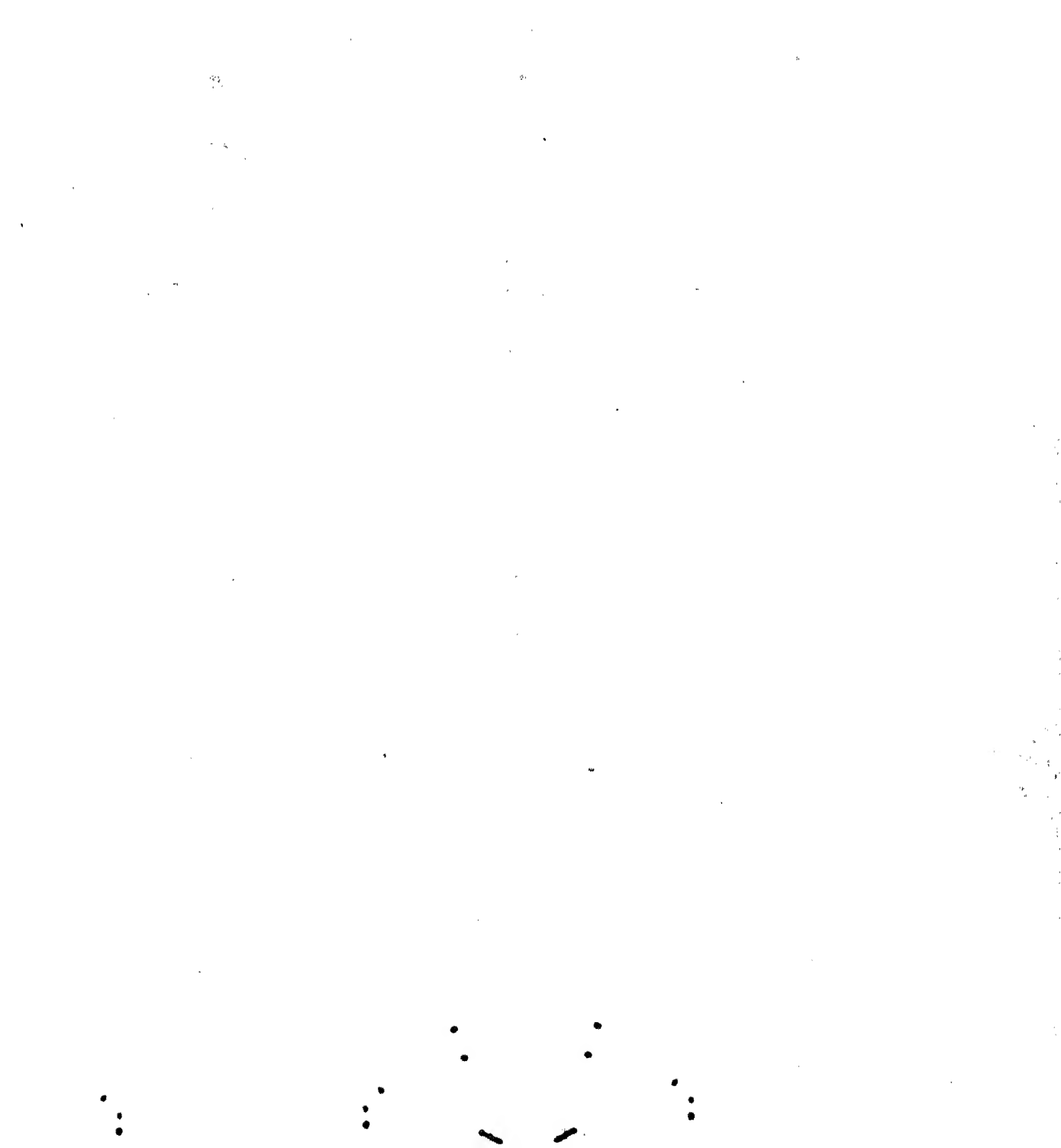
of the Nagasaki Peninsula; and I opine that the extensive series of the felsitic traps, and of the trachytes of Nagasaki and of Simabara, with the associated igneous rocks, are the work of a succeeding age of volcanic activity. Then followed the intrusion of such basaltic dikes as we see at Mogi and in the cutting above Tokeets; the formation of which was probably succeeded by a period of partial abatement of the volcanic forces. At such a time were deposited the sandstones and leaf-bearing shales of Mogi Bay, with the other sedimentary beds of the district: and amongst these, we must include the fossiliferous limestone and calcareous sandstone—also fossiliferous—of Iwosima, an island at the entrance of the Bay of Nagasaki; together with the coal-bearing sandstones of Takosima, another adjacent island.* But that the subterranean forces were not completely at rest during the deposition of these sedimentary formations, we have a sufficient demonstration in the occasional contortion of the shale at Mogi Bay, and in the intercalation now and then amongst these beds of thin seams of volcanic tuff, and—I may also add—in the crushed condition of many of the fossil shells embedded in the calcareous strata of Iwosima. At a yet later period the volcanic forces seem to have resumed their former sway; and we now behold, in the great thicknesses of agglomerates and tuffs which overlie the shales of Mogi Bay, the accumulated effects of their operations. And lastly, there ensued that general upheaval of the whole region, which, whilst it transformed an archipelago into a group of peninsulas, gave to Omura a gulf, to Simabara a bay, and to Nagasaki her far-famed harbour.

* For some further information with regard to the coal-fields of Takosima *vide* a paper by Mr. T. W. Kingsmill, published in the Journal of the North-China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society for December, 1868.



NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NAGASAKI

N.B The red dotted lines indicate the probable sites of the old channels or straits



ARTICLE III.

NOTES ON THE SOUTH COAST OF SAGHALIEN.*

By GEO. C. ANDERSON.

OKUI-KOTAN BAY

Is an anchorage on the South Coast of Saghalien and is used as a station for collecting and drying seaweed. The shore is fronted by terrace-like cliffs, with out-crops of shale and probably coal, which I had no time to examine closely. Behind the land rises in wooded ridges, presenting the usual Saghalien aspect. A few miles further east there is a lofty mountain range with several fine peaks which are useful landmarks in making the anchorage, here and at the Convict Station Karsakof, which is about six miles further to the westward, round Cape Endouma.

A fine stream of fresh water runs into the sea at Okui-Kotan and ships' boats can water with great ease, there being a deep hole close to the beach and water sufficient to float any ship's boat close up to it. Trout were observed at the mouth of the stream. The Bay is sheltered from west round by north to S.E., but the bottom is rock. The rise and fall of tide appears to be about 4 feet by the marks on the rocks. I made a hasty rough survey of the Bay and found the water shoal gradually to 3 fathoms, and then rather suddenly to 13 feet. The best plan is to stand in with the hut bearing about N.N.W., and anchor in 4 fathoms; a vessel is then quite far enough in. The

* Read before the Society on the 26th September 1881.

trend of the valleys on this part of the coast is north and south, while round Cape Endouma it is east and west. The Russians have constructed a tolerably good road from Karsakof round to a village called Poran Tomarie, and I heard that this road was to be carried on to Boussie on the east-side of Aniwa Bay, and will probably pass close to Okui-Kotan and Chupisani.

There is good wild-fowl shooting to be had at the mouth of the large river to the westward of Karsakof, but the musquitoes are very troublesome in the summer. Hazel grouse* are found in the woods, and deer have been seen. Bears are numerous according to the Russian officers. Sea-lions, seals, and whales I have seen myself.

A number of Japanese junks come here in the summer and take away salmon and herrings. There is a Japanese consul or commercial agent at Karsakof, to whom all Japanese arriving must report.

It may perhaps be worth mentioning that the Shirum-sha, a species of wild leek, reputed to be a *certain* cure for scurvy, is found all over Saghalien and is largely used by the Russians and natives all over the north. The Russian soldiers on the Amoor are very fond of it, and detachments are sent specially to procure supplies of it for winter use. The smell of it is much worse than garlic. I was told by an old Okhotsk whaling captain that he has often, after having lived weeks at sea on salt provisions, run for the island of Shantar, with himself and crew almost helpless from scurvy, and after using the Shirum-sha for a single week they invariably got perfectly well. He also told me that in the vicinity of the Shantar islands there is a rise and fall of 24 feet in the tides, with very strong tidal currents in Shantar Strait. It was on Shantar island that the unfortunate crew of the Nellie perished from scurvy, with plenty of wild berries and Shirum-sha within reach, had they known their use and value.

* *Bonasia betulena*.

CHUPISANI BAY

Is a tolerably good anchorage about fourteen miles to the eastward of Cape Endouma, South Coast of Saghalien.

It is sheltered from west round by north to S.S.E. The water shoals gradually, and the lead is a safe guide in taking up a berth. Inside the four-fathom line the bottom is sand, and further to the eastward the sandy bottom extends for some distance off shore. To the westward of the Bay the shore and bottom are alike rocky.

There is a settlement of Russian peasants here, who seem well off and contented; they raise cattle principally. Fine salmon-trout, clams, eggs, and milk were procured from them. The place is sometimes used as a seaweed station, but none is being collected this year. Fresh water can be procured with some little trouble from a small stream which runs into the sea close to Pinnacle Point; also at another stream close to the village. There is an out-crop of coal close to the beach; the surface layers are little better than shale, but doubtless better coal would be found further in. The Russian peasants stated they made use of coal which burns well, from a seam three versts inland, which I was unable to visit. I saw large quantities of what appeared to be iron ore, but it did not feel very heavy when taken in the hand.

There are some curious Aino graves to the east of the village, with quaintly carved posts and the remains of small canoes near them. There are no Ainos here now. I believe these gentle, honest, but dirty savages to be quite untamable, and destined to disappear before the advance of the white man. In Yezo saki is doing the work for the Japanese. They cannot be got to take to agriculture. The Ainos on the West Coast of Saghalien are pretty well looked after and taken care of by the traders, as they are of great value to them; but sooner or later vodka will find its way among them, and then the end of this interesting race may be calculated; for drinking to the gods, *i. e.* getting dead drunk when opportunity offers, is part

of their religion, if so it may be called. Beyond the graves the shore is bordered by low, swampy forest, extending a considerable distance to the eastward, behind which the N.E. ridge rises; and still further away are seen lofty peaks with patches of snow on them. To the west all is closed in by a range of mountains, with a high sharp peak to the north-west.

There is a slight rise and fall of tide here, not more than four feet, which seems greatly dependant on the winds; our stay was too short to ascertain exactly about the tides.

From July 9th to 13th, when in Aniwa Bay, we had two days of light airs and calms. Highest reading of thermometer 69° dry bulb; wet bulb 62° . Barometer 29.896 and steady. The rest of the time the wind was from E. and S.E., greatest force 4. Highest reading of thermometer 65° dry, 59° wet. Lowest reading 48° dry, 47° wet, at 4 a.m. The sea water was about 57° average. I have observed that on the coast of Saghalien in the early part of the season, say from April to June, the winds are generally from the south-eastward, with more or less fog; the nearer east the wind the denser the fog; but there is generally a belt of two to three miles off the west coast which is clear of fog. If the barometer falls suddenly with a S.E. wind, the wind will freshen and blow hard for a few hours, and then fall light, probably finishing at N.W., when there will be a day or two clear weather.

In July, northerly and N.E. winds prevail in the Gulf of Tartary. On the Saghalien coast the wind generally comes off the land at night. In August the fogs clear away. Storms of a revolving character are experienced as far north as the Amoor. On the 19th of last August it blew with hurricane force at the mouth of the river, the wind beginning at south and finishing at N.W., with the low rapid scud so well known. From 6 p.m. to 10 p.m. the gale was at its height, the barometer falling all the time. After 10 p.m. the barometer began to rise, and the weather rapidly improved. August however is about the finest month for weather in the year. In Sep-

tember the weather breaks up, and heavy gales may be expected from anywhere between N.E. and west. Easterly winds bring snow and rain. Vessels have no business to be on the west coast of Saghalien between the 15th and 26th of September, as the weather is very uncertain just before and after the equinox. October is considered a fine month, but liable to N.W. gales, which however generally give good warning. With the close of October winter fairly sets in.

HEIGHTS OF MOUNTAINS ON SAGHALIEN COAST.

(BY TRIANGULATION.)

Western Peak of Kaitsiska Range. Dist. 14 Miles.=3,221 feet

Middle Peak of Kaitsiska Range. „ 16 „ =3,397 „

Eastern Peak of Kaitsiska Range. „ 18 „ =3,695 „

Taken at noon July 7th, 1881. Fine clear weather.

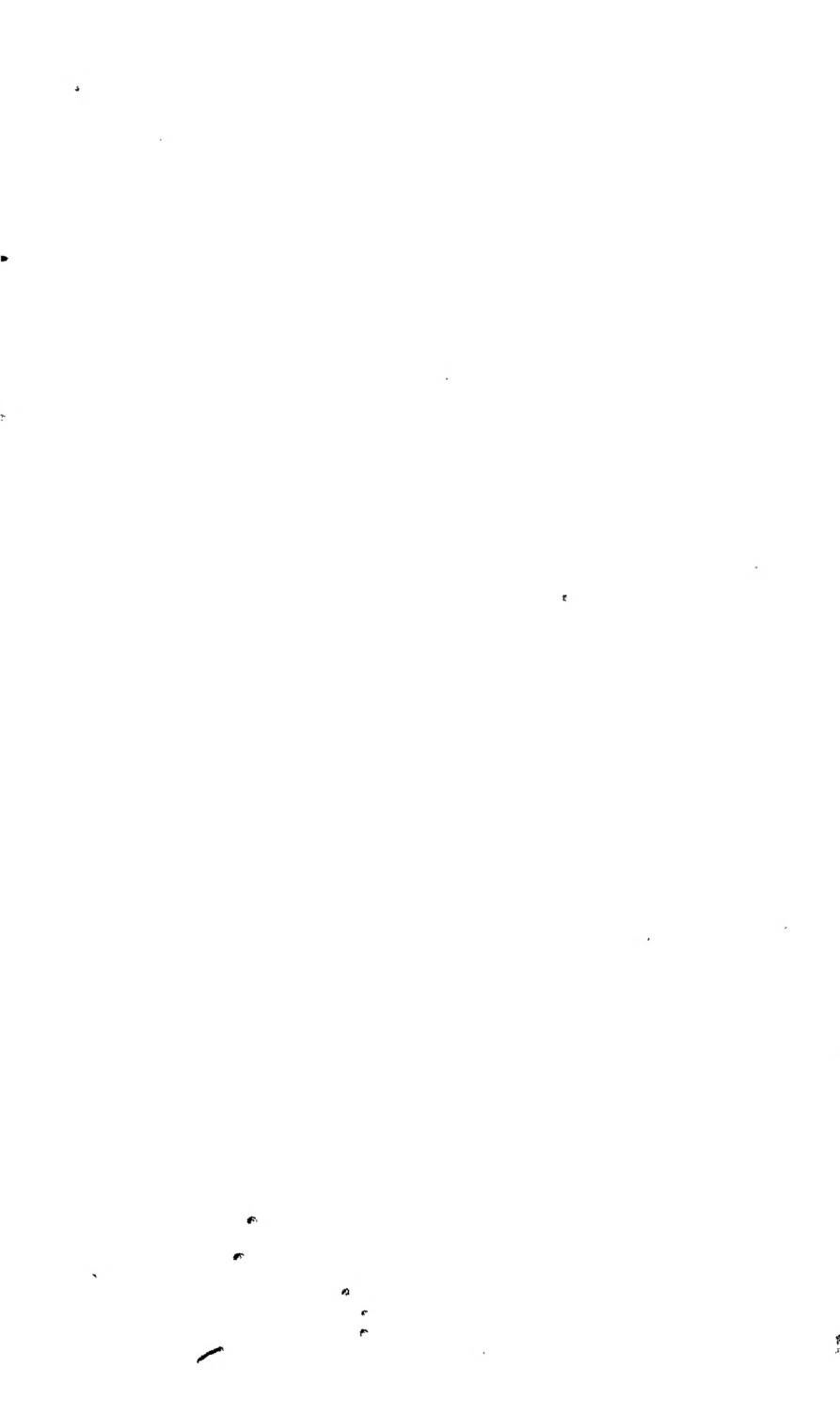
Stonkambiso Point bore N. 6° W. Eastern Peak N.

37° E. true. Lat. by Obs. $48^{\circ} 30'$ N. Long. $141^{\circ} 55'$ E.

Mount Lopatinsky. Dist. 18 Miles.=2,866 feet.

Mount Lopatinsky bore S. 35° E. Mayatchnoi Point

N. 11° E. true.



ARTICLE IV.

ANNAM

AND ITS MINOR CURRENCY.*

BY

ED. TODA.

PART I.

I.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

Since the year 1858 the Kingdom of Annam has ceased to be an unknown country, for Missionaries now travel freely in every direction, and the ports of Haiphong, Hanoi, and Quinhon are open to foreign trade. Bold explorers, either in the interest of science or gain, have gone through the country to China, to Siam, or to Burmah, following the course of the rivers or the mountain paths, sometimes peaceably, at other times armed as conquerors and fighting their way through the land. Finally, the occupation of Lower Cochinchina by the French has done more than anything else to throw light upon this country, which, if it does not occupy so important a position historically amongst Orientals as China and Japan, yet from its favourable geographical situation and from the interest Europe takes in the surrounding countries, will be obliged sooner or later to enter the comity of nations, and change the condition of its people, at present probably the most miserable in the world.

Annam became known to the civilized world through the Catholic Missionaries who went there during the sixteenth

* Read before the Society on the 15th December, 1881.

century, though their works on the subject did not have a large circulation; some never having been even published, and all being very scarce at the present time. Father MARINI wrote at the end of the seventeenth century a *relation* of Tunquin, and the Jesuit priest ALEXANDER OF RHODES also published a history of that country. In the *Lettres édifiantes et curieuses écrites des Missions Etrangères* there will be found many references by Father GAUBIL and others to the history of Annam, and with reference to the religious aspect of the kingdom also in the Chronicles published during the last century by the Dominican and Augustinian Fathers of the Philippines. JOHN BARROW, a well-known traveller, has likewise published a narrative of a voyage to CochinChina made in 1793.

Books relating to Annam have considerably increased in number during the last thirty years; most of these have been issued in Saigon and in France, and treat of the Annamese, their history, laws, customs, etc. It is to be regretted, however, that in these works the Chinese characters have not been used for the names of people and places; and this has caused more or less confusion in their identification. In their attempts to avoid this inconvenience, the French and Spanish Missionaries have introduced a system by which Roman letters with various dots and signs are made to represent Annamese words phonetically; but this is useful only to Annamese who wish to write their own language in Roman characters. In these pages an endeavour has been made to give the Chinese characters for all names which it has been possible to identify.

The literature of Annam is very poor. Except the *Annals*, written by order of the King 聖宗 THANH-TONG in 1477 by NGO-SI-LIEN, and continued at later periods, and other compilations of laws, such as the 皇越律例 *Hoang-viet-luat-le* published with an introduction by the King 嘉隆 GIA-LONG in the 11th year of his reign, all the books found in the country are of Chinese origin, the literature taught in the schools being

also Chinese. Nothing else could be expected from a country which has no real civilization of its own, but is only a reflex of China in everything relating to art, religion and government.

In China numerous works on Annam are to be found, but few of them can be looked upon as trustworthy. For instance the Chinese do not reckon as proper kings of Annam those who did not receive their investiture from the Emperor. Again, a deplorable confusion exists as regards names and dates. Finally, from the fact that the relations of China and Annam have frequently been of a hostile nature, and that many or all the works on Annam were written by Chinese officials employed to fight against that country, it is easy to see how their narratives would be of a very partial character and many facts grossly misrepresented.

The study of the numismatics of this country is completely new to Europeans. Several Chinese who have written on coins have published in their Catalogues lists of Annamese coins, and half of the 17th volume of the 古今錢略 *Ku-kin-ts'ien-lioh* deals entirely with them. However, all the coins alluded to form but an incomplete list of those issued by the last 黎 *LÊ* Dynasty, and the notices of them are certainly neither better nor worse than those in other Chinese books. As there exists thus no trustworthy basis on which to found this notice, it must not be expected that the work will either be complete or correct; but the greatest possible care has been used in the endeavour to make it so. Much information has been obtained from Father MIGUEL PORTELL, now in Tunquin, and from the distinguished Annamese *savant* PETRUS TRUONG-VINH-KY, whose aid is indispensable to all Europeans who require any information concerning Annam. From his work, *Cours d'histoire annamite*, the historical notices which precede the description of the coins themselves have been partially taken.

In order to tone down the dryness of a long numismatical list, we insert some general introductory remarks explanatory

of the periods when coins were made, the laws relating to them, the working of mines, the issue of paper-money, etc., which referring to a country so little known as Annam, will probably not be without interest.

II.

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL NOTICES.

The situation of the Annamese Kingdom on the south-east of the great Indo-malayan peninsula is well known. This state consists at the present day of the two Kingdoms of *Tunquin* and *Cochinchina*, of the Kingdom of 占城 *Chiem-thanh* or *Ciampa*, and of a part of the Kingdom of *Khmer* or *Cambodia*. *Ciampa*, a Malayan state, and during six centuries the abode of thieves and pirates, was conquered in 1471 by the Annamese army. The Kingdom of *Khmer* also lost vast territories successively up to the last century and was only able to keep its national independence by the 西山 *Tay-son* rebellion which upset the feudal constitution of the country. Annam herself was divided between the families 莫 *Mac*, 鄭 *Trinh*, and 阮 *Nguyen*, who, having entirely put aside the royal authority, contested among themselves the supreme power over the kingdom. The French colony of Lower *Cochinchina* is situated within the territories of the kingdom of *Khmer* annexed by Annam in 1758.

Mr. CHAIGNEAU, one of the French officers who in the last century accompanied the Bishop of *Adran* during his first expedition in aid of *GIA-LONG*, estimated the population of Annam at between 20 and 25 millions of souls. These figures are evidently exaggerated, at least so far as can be judged at present, as certainly the present population does not exceed 12 millions.

The division of the two Kingdoms of *Tunquin* and *Cochinchina* is still existing as a matter of fact. The former, which is also the richer and more populated, consists of the following thirteen provinces:—

— 諒山	Lang-son.	海陽	Hai-duong.
高平	Cao-bang.	北寧	Bac-ninh.
太原	Thai-nguyen.	河內	Ha-noi.
宣光	Tuyen-quang.	興遠	Hung-yen.
山西	Son-tay.	南定	Nam-dinh.
興化	Hung-hoa.	寧平	Ninh-binh.
— 廣義	Quang-yen.		

Cochinchina has twelve provinces, namely:—

— 多華	Thanh-hoa.	廣南	Quang-nam.
清安	Nghe-an.	廣外	Quang-ngoai.
河寧	Ha-ninh.	平定	Binh-dinh.
— 廣平	Quang-binh.	虎燕	Phu-yen.
廣治	Quang-tri.	慶化	Khanh-hoa.
廣德	Quang-duc.	平順	Binh-thuan.

These geographical divisions were made during the recent reign of the King 明命 MINH-MANG, and the three provinces of *Thanh-hoa*, *Nghe-an*, and *Ha-ninh*, formerly part of *Tunquin*, were added to *Cochinchina*. Previously the above two kingdoms were separated by a wall which ran along the shores of the 富良江 *Phu-luong-giang*, called in vulgar *Annamese* and on our maps the *Song-coi* river. The provinces do not range all alike, for as far as population and wealth are concerned each of them is under a different authority; in general, however, the public administration in *Annam* is very similar to that in *China*.

Originally the territories which formed the Kingdom of *Annam* were called 交趾 *Giao-chi*, which name together with that of 交南 *Giao-nam* prevailed till 225 B.C., when they became a Chinese province under the appellation of 象郡 *Siang-kiun*.

When the 漢 HAN came into power in *China*, *Tunquin* was called 南越 *Nam-viet*, and its interior division underwent various changes at different intervals. In 502 A.D. we see the country for the first time called 安南 *Annam*, which name lasted up to 940 A.D., when it was declared independent. During the succeeding dynasties up to the present time the names used for the designation of the state and the different capitals of the kingdom have been as follows:—

DYNASTY.	NAME OF THE KING.	A. D.	NAME OF THE KINGDOM.	NAME OF THE CAPITAL.	REMARKS.
丁 李 do. do.	先皇 太祖 聖宗 高宗	968 1010 1055 1176	大越 交趾 大越 安南 大嘉 do. do. { Now 河內 Hanoi called also 昇隆 Thang-long.
陳	少帝	1399	do.	西都 Tay-do.	{ Hué, called also 順化府 Thuan-hoa ^{Phu} and 承天府 Chau-thien-phu.
黎	太祖	1424	do.	東京 Dong-kinh.	{ Hanoi called before 東都 Dong-do.
do. do.	莊宗 世宗	1545 1593	do. do.	紹華 Thien-hoa. 東京 Dong-kinh.	Province of 清華 Thanh-hoa.
阮 do.	嘉隆 嗣德	1803 1862	越南 大南	富春 Phu-xuan. do.	Hué.

The mythical history of Annam, although derived from China, is much less complicated than that of the latter country. 帝明 DE-MINH, the great-grandson of the Chinese Emperor 神農 SHEN-NUNG, while travelling in the South of China, married a daughter of the race of immortals, by whom he had a son called 涇陽王 KINH-DUONG-VUONG. This son began the series of kings known as the 鴻龐氏 HONG-BAN-THI, or family of immeasurable greatness. This family gave birth to twenty rulers, eighteen of whom had the same name, viz., 雄王 HUNG-VUONG, and continued on the throne up to 252 B.C.

Let us leave aside here any description of the history of Annam during this remote period. Doubtless it was formed by Chinese and Malayan colonists who settled there and mixed among themselves, a fact paralleled by the present race of the Sang-ley, or half-casts of Chinese and Tagals now populating the Philippine islands. Each colony was under a chief and lived as in China, by agriculture and fishing.

The first dynasty mentioned in the Annamese annals is that of 蜀 TRUC, the rulers of a small kingdom situated in the north-east of Annam, where afterwards its capital city 高平 Kao-bang was built. This kingdom, founded 252 B.C., lasted only 50 years, when internal contests between the different tribes broke out, victory and supremacy continually changing between them, until the Chinese interfered, and at last occupied the country, remaining in possession till 940 A.D.

About the year 600 A.D. China organised Annam in a regular manner by dividing the country into 13 chou, at the head of each one of which a governor was placed. A regular tribute was also instituted for the first time, gold and silver appearing at the head of articles to be offered.

In 940 A.D. Annam rose in rebellion against China, and the family 吳 Ngo occupied the throne during 28 years. How Annam since that time has been able to maintain her independence is a mystery. The first three dynasties followed

each other with marvellous rapidity: the kings fell under the strokes of assassins or by military conspiracy, and rebellions prevailed in all the provinces; later on the feudal chiefs became so powerful that the kings could not even maintain the shade of their sovereignty. Up till lately, to the time of *TU-DUC*, Annam sustained its existence solely by its passive policy, which is the only strength of Oriental countries.

Before entering on the description of the coins a historical account of the epoch during which they were cast will first be given. This is done for the special purpose of clearing up the dark period from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century, during which Annam was ruled simultaneously by three or even four rulers.

III.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF THE ANNAMESSE DYNASTIES.

The Annamese have a chronological system identical with that of the Chinese, and they use the same characters of cycles and years as the Chinese. The twenty two cyclical characters which occur sometimes on Annamese coins, are herewith given :

	子 Ti.
甲 Giap.	丑 Suu.
乙 At.	寅 Dan.
丙 Binh.	卯 Meo.
丁 Dinh.	辰 Thinh.
戊 Mau.	巳 Ti.
己 Ky.	午 Ngo.
庚 Canh.	未 Mui.
辛 Tan.	申 Than.
壬 Nham.	酉 Dau.
癸 Qui.	戌 Thuat.
	亥 Hoi.

The present year in Annam, as in China, is 壬午 Nham-ngo.

The kings of Annam have a Nien-hao which is changed

according to their pleasure. These designations of reign are, of course, also changed after the death of their bearer, with the Miao-hao. I subjoin a list of both designations and the time corresponding to the reign of each king.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF THE ANNAMITE DYNASTIES.

鴻龐氏 Hong-ban-thi.

			ACCESSION.
			B.C.
涇陽王	Kinh-duong-vuong.	} Reigned during 2622 years.	2874
貉龍君	Lac-long-quan.		
雄王	Hung-vuong.		

蜀氏--Thuc-thi.

The Thuc Family.

安陽王	An-duong-vuong.		252
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趙氏—Trieu-thi.

The Trieu Family.

武帝	Vo-de.		202
文王	Van-vuong.		190
明王	Minh-vuong.		178
哀王	Ai-vuong.		177
衛陽王	Thuat-duong-vuong.		176

屬西漢—Thuoc-tay-han.

Chinese rule in Annam from B.C. 106 to A.D. 39.

徵女氏—Trung-mi-thi.

The Trung Family.

徵側	Trung-trac.		A.D. 39
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屬東漢—Thuoc-dong-han.

Chinese rule in Annam from 36 to 186.

士王 Si-vuong.

ACCESSION.

A.D.

186

屬吳晉宋齊梁—Thuoc-ngo, Tan, Tong, Te, & Luong.

Chinese dynasties ruling in Annam from 226 to 542.

李氏—Ly-thi.

The Ly Dynasty.

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCESSION.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOPTION.
前李南帝 Thien-ly-nam-de	542	天德 Thien-duc.	542
趙越王 Trieu-viet-vuong	549		
後李南帝 Hau-ly-nam-de	572		

屬隋唐—Thuoc-Tuy, & Duong.

Chinese reign in Annam of the Dynasties Tuy and Duong from 603 to 940.

吳氏—Ngo-thi.

The Ngo Family.

前吳王 Tien-ngo-vuong	940	Usurper.
附楊三哥 Phu-duong-tam-ca	946	
後吳王 Hau-ngo-vuong	952	

Twelve 使君 Su-quan or Envoys ruling from 958 to 968.

丁朝--Dinh-trieu.

The Dinh Dynasty.

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCESS- SION.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOP- TION.
先皇 Tien-hoang	968	太平 Thai-binh	968

前黎朝--Thien-Le-trieu.

The former Le Dynasty.

大行 Dai-hanh	981	天福 Thien-phuoc 興統 Hung-thong 應天 Ung-thien	981
中宋行帝 Trung-tong-hanh-de	1005	Reigned three days	
卧朝 Ngoa-trieu	1005	景瑞 Canh-thoai	1005

李朝--Ly-trieu.

The Ly Dynasty.

太祖 Thai-to	1010	順天 Thuan-thien	1010
太宗 Thai-tong	1028	天成 Thien-thanh	1028
		通瑞 Thong-thoai	
		乾符有道 Can-phu-huu-dao }	
		明道 Minh-dao	
		大感聖武 Dai-cam-thanh-vo }	
		崇興大寶 Sung-hung-dai-bao }	
聖宗 Thanh-tong	1055	龍瑞太平 Long-thoai-thai-binh }	1055
		彰聖嘉慶 Chuong-thanh-gia-kanh }	

The Ly Dynasty.—Continued.

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCES- SION.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOP- TION.
聖宗 Thanh-tong [cont.]		龍章天嗣 Long-chuong- thien-tu }	
		天貺寶象 Thien-chuc- bao-tuong }	
仁宗 Nhon-tong	1072	神武 Than-vo 太寧 Thai-ninh 英武昭勝 Anh-vo- chieu-thong }	1072
		廣祐 Quang-huu 會符 Hoi-phu 龍符 Long-phu 會祥大慶 Hoi-tuong- dai-khanh }	
		天符睿武 Thien-phu- duc-vo }	
		天符慶壽 Thien-phu- khanh-tho }	
神宗 Than-tong	1128	天順 Thien-thuan 天彰寶嗣 Thien-chuong- -bao-tu }	1128
英宗 Anh-tong	1139	紹明 Thieu-minh 大定 Dai-dinh 政隆寶應 Chanh-long- bao-ung }	1139
		天感至寶 Thien-cam- chi-bao }	
高宗 Cao-tong	1176	貞符 Trinh-phu 天資嘉瑞 Thien-tu-gia- thoai }	1176 1177
		天嘉寶祐 Thien-gia- bao-huu }	
		治平龍應 Tri-binh- long-ung }	
惠宗 Hue-tong	1211	建嘉 Kien-gia 天章有道 Thien- chuong-huu-dao }	1211
昭皇 Chieu-heang	1225		

陳朝—Tran-trieu.

The Tran Dynasty.

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCES- SION.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOP- TION.
太宗 Thai-tong	1225	建中 Kien-trung 天應政平 Thien-ung- chanh-binh }	1225
聖宗 Thanh-tong	1258	元豐 Nguyen-phong 紹隆 Thieu-long	1258
仁宗 Nhon-tong	1279	寶符 Bao-phu 紹寶 Thieu-bao	1279
英宗 Anh-tong	1293	重興 Trung-hung 興隆 Hung-long	1293
明宗 Minh-tong	1314	太慶 Thai-khanh 開泰 Khai-thoi	1314
憲宗 Hien-tong	1330	開祐 Khai-huu	1330
裕宗 Du-tong	1342	紹豐 Thieu-phong 大治 Dai-tri	1342
藝宗 Nghe-tong	1370	紹慶 Thieu-khanh	1370
睿宗 Due-tong	1373	隆慶 Long-khanh	1373
廢帝 Pho-de	1378	昌符 Xuong-phu	1378
順宗 Thuan-tong	1390	光泰 Quang-thoi	1390
少帝 Thien-de	1399	建新 Kien-tan	1399
簡定帝 Gian-dinh- de	1407	興慶 Hung-khanh	1407
重光帝 Trung- quang de	1410	重光 Trung-quang	1410

Chinese rule in Annam from 1414 to 1428.

黎朝—Le-trieu.

The Le Dynasty.

太祖 Thai-to	1428	順天 Thuan-thien.	1428
太宗 Thai-tong	1434	紹平 Thieu-binh	1434
		大寶 Dai-bao	1440
仁宗 Nhon-tong	1443	太和 Thai-hoa	1443

The Le Dynasty.—*Continued.*

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCESSION.	TITLE OF REIGN.		YEAR OF ADPTION.
仁宗 Nhon-tong	1460	延寧	Dien-ninh	1453
[cont.]		光順	Quang-thuan	1460
聖宗 Thanh-tong		洪德	Hong-dec	1470
憲宗 Hien-tong	1498	景統	Kien (or Canh) thong	1498
肅宗 Tuc-tong	1505	泰貞	Thoi-trinh	1505
威穆帝 Oai-muc-de	1505	端慶	Thoai-khanh	1505
襄翼帝 Thuong-duc-do }	1509	洪順	Hong-thuan	1509
昭宗 Chieu-tong	1517	光紹	Quang-thieu	1517
恭皇 Cung-hoang	1523	統元	Thong-nguyen	1523
莊宗 Trang-tong	1533	元和平	Nguyen-hoa	1533
中宗 Trung-tong	1549	順平	Thuan-binh	1549
英宗 Anh-tong	1557	天祐	Thien-huu	1557
世宗 The-tong	1573	正治	Chanh-tri	1566
		洪福	Hong-phuoc	1570
		嘉泰	Gia-thoi	1573
		光興	Quang-hung	1581
敬宗 Kinh-tong	1599	愼德	Than-duc	1599
神宗 Than-tong	1619	弘定	Hoang-dinh	1617
		永祥	Vinh-tuong	1619
		德隆	Duc-long	1629
		陽和	Duong-hoa	1635
真宗 Chon-tong	1642	福泰	Phuoc-thoi	1642
神宗 Than-tong (again) }	1648	慶德	Khanh-duc	1648
玄宗 Huyen-tong	1662	盛德	Thanh-duc	1652
		永壽	Vinh-tho	1655
		萬慶	Van-khanh	1661
		景治	Canh-tri	1662
		陽德	Duong-duc	1672
嘉宗 Gia-tong	1672	德元	Duc-nguyen	1674
熙宗 Hi-tong	1675	永治	Vinh-tri	1675
		正和	Chanh-hoa	1689
裕宗 Du-tong	1705	永盛	Vinh-thanh	1705

The Le Dynasty.—*Continued.*

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCES- SION.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOP- TION.
裕宗 Du-tong [cont.]		保泰 Bao-thoi	1719
永慶帝 Vinh- khanh-de }	1727	永慶 Vinh-khanh	1727
純宗 Thuan-tong	1731	龍德 Long-duc	1731
愍宗 Y-tong	1735	永祐 Vinh-huu	1735
顯宗 Hien-tong	1740	景興 Canh-hung	1740
昭統帝 Chieu- thong-de }	1785	昭統 Chieu-thong	1785

阮皇朝—Nguyen-hoang-trieu.

The Nguyen Dynasty.

世祖高皇帝 The- to-cau-hoang-de }	1776	隆 嘉慶 Gia-long	1801
聖祖仁皇帝 Thanh to-nhon- hoang-de }	1820	明命 Minh-mang	1820
憲祖章皇帝 Hien-to-chuong- hoang-de }	1838	紹治 Thieu-tri	1838
The reigning Sovereign }	1845	嗣德 Tu-duc	1845

莫主—Mac-chua.

The Mac Family

莫登庸 Mac- dang-dung }	1527	明德 Minh-duc	1527
莫登瀛 Mac- dang-dinh }	1530	大正 Dai-chanh	1530
莫福海 Mac- phuoc-hai }	1541	廣和 Quang-hoa	1541
莫福源 Mac- phuoc-nguyen }	1546	永定 Vinh-dinh	1546

The Mac Family.—*Continued.*

DYNASTIC TITLE.	ACCESSION.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOPTION.
莫福源 Mac-phuoc-nguyen [cont.]	1561	景曆 Canh-lich	1548
莫茂洽 Mac-mau-hiep }		光寶 Quang-bao	1557
		淳福 Thuan-phuoc	1561
		崇康 Tong-kanh	1565
		延成 Dien-thanh	1577
		端泰 Thoai-thoi	1585
		興治 Hung-tri	1587
		洪寧 Hong-ninh	1590
		寶定 Bao-dinh	1592
莫宣 Mac-tuyen	1592	武安 Vo-an	1592
莫敬至 Mac-kinh-chi }	1592	康佑 Kanh-yao	1592
莫敬恭 Mac-kinh-cung }	1593	乾綜 Can-tong	1593
莫敬寬 Mac-kinh-khoan }	1616	龍泰 Long-thoi	1616
莫敬宁 Mac-kinh-vo }	1659	順德 Thuan-duc	1659

Extinguished in 1667.

鄭主—Trinh-chua.

The Trinh Family.

鄭檢 Trinh-kiem	1545	明王 Minh-vuong	1545
鄭從 Trinh-tong	1569	平安 Binh-an	1569
鄭莊 Trinh-trang	1620	盛都 Thanh-do	1620
鄭碩 Trinh-thac	1654	西定 Tay-dinh	1654
鄭千 Trinh-can	1683	定南 Dinh-nam	1683
鄭矜 Trinh-cang	1708	安都 An-do	1708
鄭江 Trinh-giang	1728	威都 Oai-do	1728
鄭營 Trinh-dinh	1739	明都 Minh-do	1739
鄭參 Trinh-sum	1765	定都 Dinh-do	1765
鄭佳 Trinh-giai	1781	端南 Thoai-nam	1781

Extinguished in 1785.

阮主--Nguyen-chua.

The Nguyen Family.

DYNASTIC TITLE.	TITLE OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOP- TION.
太祖嘉裕皇帝 Thai-to-gia-du- hoang-de	仙王 Tien-vuong	1562
熙宗孝萬皇帝 Hi-tong-hieu- van-hoang-de	什王 Sai-vuong	1614
神宗孝昭皇帝 Than-tong-hieu- chieu-hoang-de	上王 Thuong- vuong	1635
太宗孝章皇帝 Thai-tong-hieu- chuong-hoang-de	賢王 Hien-vuong	1649
英宗孝義皇帝 Anh-tong-hieu- ngai-hoang-de	義王 Ngai-vuong	1668
顯宗孝明皇帝 Hien-tong-hieu- minh-hoang-de	明王 Minh-vuong	1692
肅宗孝寧皇帝 Tuc-tong-hieu- ninh-hoang-de	寧王 Ninh-vuong	1724
世宗孝武皇帝 The-tong-hieu- vo-hoang-de	武王 Vo-vuong	1737
睿宗孝定皇帝 Due-tong-hieu- dinh-hoang-de	定王 Dinh-vuong	1765

Extinguished in 1776.

IV.

SITUATION OF ANNAM AS AN INDEPENDENT COUNTRY.

Annam has always been tributary to China, and, from the time of its becoming a self-governed state, has occasionally sent presents and tribute to the Son of Heaven. Whenever she has not done so, a war with China has been the inevitable result. China, on her side, has attached great

importance to this tribute, and has fixed not only the dates on which it was to be paid, but also the nature of the presents to be made to her by Annam.

In 1252, China being under MONGOL rule, Annam had to pay tribute every three years. Under the 明 MING Dynasty the regulations for payment of tribute by Annam were altered, and those now in force are to be found in Mr. DEVÉRIA's work *Histoire des Relations de la Chine avec l'Annam-Vietnam, du XVI^e au XIX^e siècle.* (Paris, Ernest Leroux, 1880.)

That Annam is a country under the sovereignty of China, is still more clear by the fact, that, on an Annamese king coming to the throne, he has to ask for investiture at the hands of the Emperor, in the same way as in the Middle Ages monarchs of Catholic countries had to obtain this confirmation of power from the Pope. Moreover, although in his relations with his subjects and in treaties with western powers the King of Annam is designated 大皇帝 Dai-hoang-de, or *Supreme Emperor*, the characters 國長 Kuo-tchang, or *Chief of a Kingdom*, are applied to him in China when soliciting investiture; and he is afterwards simply called 王 Wang, meaning *King or Prince*. In addressing the Emperor, the King of Annam makes use of the form 表 Piao, i.e. *statement presented to the Emperor*; and in replying to him the form 勅書 Tche-chu, or *letter sent by special command of the Emperor*, is used.

When in 1790 the 西山 Tay-son rebel 阮惠 NGUYEN-HUE, already invested as king of Annam by 乾隆 K'ien-lung, came to China to salute the Emperor on the occasion of the 55th anniversary of his reign, he took part in the ceremonies of the palace in company with the Tartar Princes of the first and second rank, performing with them the various court rites, such as kneeling three times and bowing nine times before His Imperial Majesty.

This state of affairs would seem to have been changed by the treaty signed at Saigon on the 15th March 1874

between the French Rear-Admiral DUPRÉ, Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Lower Cochinchina, and the Annamese Ambassadors 黎順 LE-THUAN and 阮萬 NGUYEN-VAN. Article II. of that treaty states that the President of the French Republic, recognising the sovereignty of the King of Annam and his entire independence of all foreign powers whatsoever, promises him aid and assistance, and engages to give him, on his demand and gratuitously, the necessary means for maintaining order and tranquility in his state, to defend it against all attacks, and to destroy the piracy which desolates a portion of the coasts of the kingdom. In recognition (Art. III.) of this protection, His Majesty the King of Annam engages to conform his foreign policy to that of France, and in no way to change his present diplomatic relations.

The independence of Annam cannot be stated in more explicit terms than those given above; nevertheless, three years later, in 1877, King 嗣德 TU-DUC suddenly recalled to his mind that he was still a vassal of China and sent an embassy to Peking bearing tribute. The *Peking Gazette* of the 31st March 1878 publishes a Memorial from 涂宗瀛 T'U TSUNG-YING, Governor of Kuang-si, reporting the arrival of this mission on its way back to Annam. The report says that the members expressed themselves profoundly grateful for the generous and liberal treatment they had received from the hands of His Majesty the Emperor, who, they informed the memorialist, had been graciously pleased to grant them an audience, and bestow upon them some complimentary scrolls. His Majesty had also given them an Imperial Letter for the King of Annam, with presents of silks, satins and other articles. After resting a few days at the provincial capital, they were sent on under escort to their own country.

This political constitution of a double character, which in European states would lead to endless warfare, does not seem to affect to any great extent the authority of eastern monarchs. In Annam, for instance, the king yields to outside

pressure only when obliged to do so by force of arms; within his own territories his rule is absolute and despotic; he neither takes into consideration his state of vassalage to the Emperor of China, nor does he hold himself bound by treaties signed by him with other Powers.

V.

MINES.

To get nearer the subject of this work, *i.e.* the currency of Annam, we must first throw a glance at the mines and the mining industry of the country.

Annam is very rich in mines, though poor in metals, on account of the Government making the working of the mines a monopoly, or rendering it unprofitable to work them by the imposition of restrictions and by oppressive measures of every kind.

Nearly all the mines are situated in the mountainous districts of the kingdom, namely, in High Tunquin, with the exception of one gold mine in the province of 北寧 Bac-ninh. Metals of every kind are abundant, as proved by the following official list of mines paying royalties to the Government; and yet this list does not comprise the names of all mines worked at the present day.

GOLD MINES.

PROVINCE OF 北寧 BAC-NINH.

- 1.—煤豐恆 Moi-phuong-hang. Makes an annual payment to the Treasury of seven oz. of gold.

PROVINCE OF 太原 THAI-NGUYEN.

- 2.—純茫煤 Thuan-mang-moi. Makes an annual payment of ten oz. of gold.

3.—金喜煤 Kim-hi-moi. Makes an annual payment of twenty oz. of gold.

4.—寶囊煤 Bao-nang-moi. Makes an annual payment of six oz. of gold.

5.—爽木煤 Sang-moc-moi. Makes an annual payment of fifteen oz. of gold.

PROVINCE OF 諒山 LANG-SON.

6.—那邑煤 Na-ap-moi. Makes an annual payment of six oz. of gold.

7.—春陽煤 Xuan-duong-moi. Makes an annual payment of four oz. of gold.

PROVINCE OF 高平 CAO-BANG.

8.—上坡煤 Thuong-ba-moi. Makes an annual payment of four oz. of gold.

9.—下坡煤 Ha-ba-moi. Makes an annual payment of four oz. of gold.

10.—清陀煤 Thanh-da-moi. Makes an annual payment of ten oz. of gold.

11.—賦內煤 Phu-noi-moi. Makes an annual payment of ten oz. of gold.

PROVINCE OF 興化 HUNG-HOA.

12.—蜴喻煤 Dich-hop-moi. Makes an annual payment of ten oz. of gold.

13.—本曾煤 Ban-tang-moi. Makes an annual payment of ten oz. of gold.

PROVINCE OF 宣光 TUYEN-QUANG.

14.—粘山煤 Niem-son-moi. Makes an annual payment of ten oz. of gold.

15.—玉輦煤 Ngaoc-lien-moi. Makes an annual payment of eight oz. of gold.

16.—靈湖煤 Linh-ho-moi. Makes an annual payment of eight oz. of gold.

17.—仙橋煤 Tien-kieu-moi. Makes an annual payment of eight oz. of gold.

SILVER MINES.

PROVINCE OF 太原 THAI-NGUYEN.

1.—成樂煤 Thanh-lac-moi. Makes an annual payment of one hundred oz. of silver.

2.—仙山煤 Tien-sou-moi. Makes an annual payment of four hundred oz. of silver.

3.—送星煤 Toung-tinh-moi. Makes an annual payment of one hundred and thirty oz. of silver.

4.—美和煤 Mi-hoa-moi. Makes an annual payment of twenty oz. of silver.

5.—叫和煤 Khieu-hoa-moi. Makes an annual payment of sixty oz. of silver.

PROVINCE OF 宣光 TUYEN-QUANG.

6.—南登煤 Nam-dang-moi. Makes an annual payment of thirty oz. of silver.

COPPER MINES.

PROVINCE OF 興化 HUNG-HOA.

1.—萊昌煤 Lai-x^hong-moi. Makes an annual payment of three hundred pounds of copper.

2.—裕登煤 Du-dang-moi. Makes an annual payment of four hundred pounds of copper.

PROVINCE OF 宣光 TUYEN-QUANG.

3.—聚龍煤 Tu-long-moi. This mine has silver and copper, and makes an annual payment of eighty oz. of silver and twelve thousand pounds of copper.

PROVINCE OF 山西 SON-TAY.

4.—玲琛煤 Linh-tham-moi. Makes an annual payment of three hundred pounds of copper.

TIN MINES.

PROVINCE OF 太原 THAI-NGUYEN.

1.—廓儒煤 Guach-nho-moi. Makes an annual payment of six hundred pounds of tin.

The working of mines in Annam was first begun when the country was still a part of the Chinese Empire, and before the coming into power of the 吳 Ngo Dynasty, but it has been impossible to obtain any reliable information relating to this period.

In the *Annals* of Annam it is mentioned that in King 大行 DAI-HANH's palace the throne room, called 百寶千錢殿, was fitted up with gold and silver; and that the roof of a pavilion called 竜録殿 was composed of silver tiles. In 1010 King 太祖 THAI-TO of the 李 LY Dynasty, when going to a place called Co-phap, made presents of silk and silver to the aged people of the villages. In the accounts of the accession of some of the later kings we read of similar presents of precious metals being made to the people.

The various savage tribes inhabiting the mountains of the Tunquin frontier and the range of hills lying parallel with the Eastern coast have been from a very early period in the habit of working the mines and bringing down the metals in their rough state, in exchange for different articles. This is still done by the Moi, the Muong, and other tribes who thus bring to the Annamese markets considerable quantities of gold, silver, iron, and lead.

At the time of the occupation of Annam by the Chinese under the 明 Ming Dynasty, in 1414, the Annamese were forced to work the gold and silver mines, without pay, and the metals extracted were sent to China as compensation for the

war expenses. Later on, King 太祖 THAI-TO of the 黎 LE Dynasty gave a great impulse to the extraction of large quantities of metals, the work being carried on under Government supervision and on its account. The first king who allowed mines to be worked by private individuals was 裕宗 DU-TONG. In 1708 he established a scale of royalties to be paid by each mine, and this scale or tariff exists to the present day in the form given above, with but little variations,

The Chinese were the only people who availed themselves of this permission, and King DU-TONG, in order to avoid too great a concourse of miners and the troubles that might thereby ensue, gave orders that the number of Chinese working in each mine should be limited to three hundred, and that they should be under the supervision of Government officials, who were entrusted also with the collection of all dues.

In 1729, King 永慶帝 VINH-KHANH-DE issued a curious decree ordering the closing of all mines in the royal province of 清華 Thanh-hoa, the reason for this being that he did not wish to disturb the "veins of the earth that had produced the royal race of the LE Dynasty."

Since that time the mines in Annam have been worked solely by Chinese, who have no doubt made very considerable profits therefrom, inasmuch as, quite recently, the Mandarins of Tunquin complained to the king that the country was being ruined by the exportation to China of all the gold and silver obtained from the mines. It is hard to convince eastern nations that the exportation of precious metals from a country does not affect its resources in any way.

To open up a new mine in Annam it is necessary to obtain the sanction of the Government; and any one venturing to do so without this permission is punished with death by decapitation.

Under the Penal Code thefts in the mines are also punished very severely. This Code says that any one working in gold,

silver, copper, tin or mercury mines and appropriating any of the mineral, shall be punished as having stolen money; he who offers resistance to those coming to arrest him shall be deported, and should he wound or kill any officer arresting him, he shall be decapitated. The crime of stealing minerals is still more severely dealt with if committed by a company of thirty or more people.

The Code also punishes overseers of mines allowing fraudulent extraction of metals.

VI.

MANUFACTURE OF COINS.

Nearly every kind of metal has been used in Annam in the manufacture of coins, and there are now in circulation coins made of gold, silver, copper, zinc, and lead; and up to within a short time ago there were also coins made of iron.

Gold and silver coins were not made except under the last dynasty, and in a very limited number; but the kings of the present dynasty have given a greater impulse to their mintage. According to the laws for casting coins in those metals, those used for paying Mandarins are to be round, and in lingots for payment to the troops in time of war. There exists also a large number of gold and silver medals with inscriptions and allegories relating to the 五寶 Ngu-bao or *Five Precious Things*; and these are distributed by the king in return for services to the state. These medals, however, pass into circulation and are taken as currency according to weight. The classification of these gold and silver coins and medals would take up too much space in the present work and we therefore leave it for future consideration.

The minor currency of Annam is identical with that of China; in fact nearly all the coins which were in circulation

up to the 15th century were actually cast in the provinces of 廣東 Kuang-tung, 廣西 Kuang-si, and 福建 Fu-kien, and brought direct to Annam in Chinese junks. The coins thus imported were smaller than the ordinary Chinese cash; they bore the Nien-hao or *name of reign* of various Emperors of the 宋 Sung Dynasty of China, and are still to be found in large numbers. In Annam coins were cast only under a few of the kings of the dynasties 丁 DINH, 前黎 former LE, 李 LY, and 陳 TRAN, who reigned before that period. The description of these coins will be found further on.

In early days, the casting of cash was the prerogative of the king, according to rules contained in the 九府圖法 Chu-phu-hoan-phap, or *Uniform Laws for the Nine Phu*. The text is rather obscure, but we gather from it that the cash were either cast at nine mints or stored in nine magazines in order to prevent an excessive circulation, in the following nine places: 太府 Thai-phu, 王府 Vuong-phu, 內府 Noi-phu, 外府 Ngoai-phu, 泉府 Tuyen-phu, 天府 Thien-phu, 職內 Chuc-noi, 職金 Chuc-kim, and 職幣 Chuc-te.

In the time of King 顯宗 HIEN-TONG of the 黎 LE Dynasty (1740-1786) mints were established in the capitals of some provinces, and it was ordered that on the reverse of the coins the name of the place whence they came should be indicated. At the present day two mints exist in Annam, where cash are cast for the use of the Government: one in Huc, the ancient capital of Cochinchina and now the capital of the whole kingdom; and the other in Hanoi, the ancient capital of Tunquin. Besides these, private speculators are allowed to cast cash with the permission of the Government who send deputies to inquire into the number of furnaces used and the monthly quantity of cash made, on which a contribution is levied. This contribution is usually paid twice over by the manufacturers on account of the exactions of the Mandarins.

Coins are also cast in Macao for circulation in Annam; and from a very recent report addressed by the Governor of that

Colony to the Portuguese Government it would appear that there exist at the present moment six manufactories of Annamese coins, employing twelve furnaces and three hundred and twenty workmen, and producing daily 700,000 cash.

In 1528 iron coins began to come into circulation in Annam. The Annals state that, when the usurper 莫登庸 MAC DANG-DUNG proclaimed himself king under the name of 明德 MINH-DUC, he wished to have coins cast, and having no copper made use of iron. This is the only occasion on which we see iron employed in the casting of Annamese coins.

Zinc coins appeared for the first time during the reign of the King 顯宗 HIEN-TONG (1740.) They were also made by 阮岳 NGUYEN-NHAC, chief of the 西山 Tay-son rebels, who was proclaimed king in 1764. This example was followed by the King 嘉隆 GIA-LONG in consequence of the great scarcity of copper in the kingdom. This king was the first who had coins made out of lead. The reasons which led to the use of these different metals, as well as the different amalgams of copper, tin, lead, and zinc, will be explained afterwards.

Various laws were passed at different times with reference to the circulation of the currency. In 1230 the King 太宗 THAI-TONG of the 陳 TRAN Dynasty regulated the value of the cash, ordering that each string or *tien* which the peasants had to pay to the Treasury should contain seventy cash, and only sixty those which dwellers in the cities paid in. The founder of the 黎 LE Dynasty reduced the *tien* to fifty cash; but its value was very soon raised by his successor, who in 1435 ordered all collectors of taxes to accept the old copper cash so far as it could be put in strings, and increased the *tien* to sixty cash. At the present day the *tien* is still composed of sixty zinc cash; and ten *tiens* make one *quan-tien*.

We have searched in vain for any law relating to the different standards of copper, zinc and lead coins. Their value depends altogether on the market, which in the ports open to

foreign trade is regulated by the price of the Mexican Dollar. At present, one copper cash or 錢 Dong is equal to ten zinc cash; and one quan-tien (600 zinc cash) is worth a little more than fifteen cents of a dollar. A box large enough to hold four hundred strings of zinc cash, equal to sixty Mexican Dollars, would have to be three cubic feet in size! The value of lead coins is still smaller than those of zinc, but they are fortunately very little used.

In payments to the Government six hundred and four zinc cash are counted to the tien, the four extra cash being required in compensation for the expense of transport of this cumbersome coinage.

VII.

FALSE COINAGE, AND PENAL LAWS RELATING THERETO.

When speaking of false coinage we do not refer to coins issued by the rebels, who continually devastated the provinces, as these coins circulated in small quantities along with those issued by Royal authority. Many of the coins made by rebels were of so fragile a nature, that in the course of time they have entirely disappeared.

It seems rather improbable that, considering the very small value of Annamese cash, any one should be able to forge them and still make a profit on the operation. But, as in other parts of the world, makers of base coin prospered like some other flourishing industries in Annam, the manufacture being in the hands of Chinese.

Book 3rd, Part 6th, Section 5th of the 皇越律例 *Hoang-viet-luat-le*, or Penal Code of the Annamese Kingdom, prescribes the penalties to be inflicted upon persons forging the coins of the realm. Any one concerned in the making of false coins is liable to the punishment of death by strangulation. Those who knowingly buy false coins are

liable to perpetual banishment to a distance of three thousand *le* from their residence, and to one hundred blows. The informer receives a reward of fifty taels of silver. A mandarin who permits the manufacture of false coins is liable to a penalty of one hundred blows. Any one reducing the size of the current cash for the sake of the metal, receives one hundred blows. Those who attempt to make foreign gold or silver coins out of copper, lead, or quicksilver are punished by being kept three years in irons and receiving one hundred blows; and any person dealing in such coins is liable to a punishment of two years and a half in irons and ninety blows.

Besides these laws, there are two supplementary statutes, which lay down the penalties for new forms of forgery. By the first statute the punishment of three years in irons and one hundred blows is prescribed for the following offences: (1) making holes in silver coins and filling up with copper or lead; (2) making shoes of sycee of which the interior consists of copper or lead; (3) employing copper or lead mixed with silver in the proportion of not more than two, three, four or five tenths of silver in the whole coin.

The second statute imposes the same punishment upon those who make coins with the name and title of deceased kings.

Notwithstanding these severe penalties, false coinage is practised on a very large scale, not only in Annam, but also in China and Hongkong. Not long ago a considerable quantity of false cash was discovered in the colony of Hongkong, the makers of which were brought before the Courts. They were allowed to go free on their shewing that the cash were intended for Annam; and it was fortunate for the credit of the Annamese officials that the investigations were not pushed any further, as the very cash in question were taken to Annam by the "Bouranne," one of King 嗣德 Tu-duc's gunboats then in Hongkong for the purpose of being repaired.

VIII.

MAGAZINES FOR COINS, AND LAWS REFERRING TO THEM.

There are two kinds of magazines for coins belonging to the Government: one the regular Treasury, and the other where superabundant coins are kept.

In the Treasury is received the produce of the taxes, which are collected by the Huong-than, or chief of each Municipality, assisted by two elders called Quan-vien. When the taxes are all paid, the amount is taken to the provincial Treasury, and there the coins and ingots of silver are tested by the chief of the guild of goldsmiths, who answers by all he is worth for the accuracy of his judgment. In the case of zinc coins, as it is quite impossible to be deceived in the material, it is only necessary to arrange them in parcels consisting of strings of 604 cash.

Each provincial Treasury is under the charge of a minor official called Chu-thu-thuong-vieu, or "Superintendent of the Magazine," assisted by one Doi, or Captain of the military guard, who also controls the receipts and expenditure of the coins.

The Treasurer sends each month his balance to the Minister of Finances, and his accounts are also examined at stated times by Inspectors sent from the court of Hué.

Robberies from these magazines are by the Annamese Code subject to the following scale of punishments:—

For the theft of	1 tael	80 Blows.	
do.	2½ taels	90 do.	
do.	5 "	100 do.	
do.	7½ "	60 do. and 1 year in irons.	
do.	10 "	70 do. and 1½ years do.	
do.	12 "	80 do. and 2 do.	
do.	15 "	90 do. and 2½ do.	
do.	17½ "	100 do. and 3 do.	

For the theft of 20 taels100	Blows and banishment to 2000 le.
do. 25 „100	do. and banishment to 2500 le.
do. 30 „100	do. and banishment to 3000 le.
do. 40 „	Decapitation.

The above scale is applicable to robberies committed by any of the employés of the Magazine. For common thefts the penalty is not so severe, as only a robbery of 80 taels or more is punished with death by strangulation.

There are also storehouses where small coins are kept when there is a great abundance in the market. Such storehouses also exist in China, and have been of great utility in times of public calamities. In the Annamese *Annals* mention is frequently made of the opening of such storehouses, either for assistance to the poor, or for rewards to the people. The first notice of such an occurrence dates as far back as the year 1028, when the King 太宗 THAI-TONG of the 李 LY Dynasty, on coming to the throne, ordered a distribution amongst the people of the coins in those magazines. In the fourth moon of the year 1074, in consequence of a great drought which destroyed the crops, the granaries, as well as these storehouses were opened for the succour of the needy.

Other distributions were made at later periods, one being recorded in the 6th moon of the year 1448, when there was a great famine in the provinces of Tuyen-quang, Qui-hoa, Giao-hung and Da-giang. The last of those donations was made by King 嘉隆 GIA-LONG, in 1801, after the pacification of the country, when he had destroyed the 西山 Tay-sou rebels. On that occasion he remitted to the people one year's taxes, distributing to his troops one thousand taels of gold, ten thousand taels of silver, and thirty thousand strings of cash. To the auxiliary army of Cambodia he also gave thirty taels of gold, three hundred of silver, and three thousand strings.

IX.

CUSTOMS AND SUPERSTITIONS CONNECTED WITH COINS.

The Annamese have the same ideas as the Chinese concerning the efficacy of hanging coins round the necks of children, or over the beds of sick people, &c.; but no further explanation is required here, the fact being well known to those at all acquainted with the numismatics of these countries.

When dealing with the different kinds of metal employed in the manufacture of cash, it was mentioned that the Annamese Government had several reasons for employing the most fragile materials. An explanation of this is given in an excellent work published in Manila in 1858 by the Dominican Missionary MANUEL DE RIVAS, entitled *Idea del Imperio de Anam*. The following extract from page 103 of that book is here translated:

“It is a common belief on that in the Annamese Kingdom gold and silver exist in great abundance, hidden in the bowels of the earth; and for that reason, when the rice harvest is good, and there is an influx of money into the country, it at once disappears without any one knowing where it has gone; because what is imported is of little value, whilst the quantity exported is much larger. In the period of 1844-1846 it entered into my mind to take an account of the number of Chinese junks which went to Tunquin to load clean rice; and in the port of Hoa-phaong (Haiphong) alone I saw more than three hundred. Calculating that each junk carried away on an average five hundred quintals each, this would represent a total of \$60,000 received at one port alone. At that time there was a large circulation of silver at that port, one bar of the nominal value of fifteen dollars being then only equal to forty-five strings of cash. In the other ports of the middle provinces, and in Hanoi, the exportation of grain was still

larger, and so was the silver brought into the country; but three months later the silver had all disappeared, and a similar bar cost from seventy-five to eighty strings of cash, by which fluctuation many people made considerable profits. In olden times the currency of Tunquin and CochinChina consisted of circular coins with a square hole in the middle, called Dong-thien, which were much smaller than the Chinese cash. Without being exported, these coins disappeared entirely from circulation a few months after they had been issued by the mints in large quantities. The Government then ascertained that the people were in the habit of burying all cash that came into their possession, in consequence of which the laws relating to the currency were altered; and the coins, which were previously of copper, were afterwards made from zinc mixed with lead and tin. As this material was of so much more fragile a nature and decomposed rapidly, if buried, the abuses resulting from the old custom were stopped and also the calamities arising from a deficient circulation."

The custom of burying treasure was not new in Annam, and is explained by the want of security existing at all times. In the fourteenth century this custom was accompanied by a very barbarous one, which was the invention of the "Spirit protectors of treasures." It is said that TRAU-CANH, a famous doctor of the Palace, having accumulated immense wealth and wishing to secure it, buried it in a deep cave under the guard of the Spirits. To that end, he buried near the treasure a young virgin, with a root of ginseng in her mouth to preserve her from hunger and thirst, and lighted the cave with a large jar full of oil.

The Chinese who accumulated money in Annam and could not take it to their own country, also buried it in secret places, putting it under the guard of the innocent victims converted by superstition into Spirit protectors. This custom was a universal one, all classes of society following it, as King 廢帝 PHE-DE of the 陳 TRẦN Dynasty, wishing to

preserve his riches from the hordes of Ciampa who had invaded the kingdom, ordered them to be buried in a cave in the Thien-kien mountain, where the people say they still remain, the secret of the position of the cave having been lost.

X.

PAPER-MONEY IN ANNAM.

Shortly after the introduction into China by the Mongols of paper-money, it also circulated in Annam. In 1397 General 胡絳季 Ho QUI-LY, the real ruler of Annam under King 少帝 THIEU-DE, prohibited the circulation of copper coins and ordered that paper-money only, called 通寶會鈔 Thong-bao-hoi-sau, should be used. This paper-money had a design, peculiar to each different class, indicating its exchange value for the copper coins which it had just supplanted.

The paper-money of the value of 10 cash was marked with the design of grass.

That of	30	cash	with	waves.
„	60	„	„	clouds.
„	120	„	„	turtle.
„	180	„	„	unicorn.
„	300	„	„	phoenix.
„	600	„	„	dragon.

The Government made great efforts to ensure the circulation of this paper-money, and impose it on the people. To that end it was ordered that all copper coins in circulation should be taken to the Treasuries, where the value of one string and two tien of paper-money was given for one string of cash. The forgery of paper-money was punished with death by decapitation, and there were also severe penalties imposed on those who had copper coins in their possession.

But in spite of those orders and restrictions, paper-money soon fell into discredit and the old copper coins circulated freely. In fact the very General HO QUI-LY ordered copper cash to be cast when he rebelled and usurped the Royal authority.

PART II.

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE.

XI.

The 吳 Ngo Family. The twelve 使君 Suquan. The 丁 Dinh Dynasty. The former 黎 Le Dynasty.—940-1010 A.D.

The 吳 Ngo Family.—940-948.

NGO-GUYEN, an Annamese of the state of Ai-chao, was the founder of this family, which held the reins of power for eighteen years. Ngo-guyen took the name of 前吳王 TIEN-NGO-VUONG, governing for six years, which were passed in continuous wars.

He left the crown to his son, a minor, under the regency of 三哥 TAM-CA, who usurped the throne, proclaiming himself king under the name of 平王 BINH-VUONG. Tam-ca, however, was soon defeated by another son of Ngo-guyen, called 後 HAU, who in an expedition against the rebels of 太平 THAI-BINH was killed by an arrow in 958.

During this period there is no record of the issue of any coins in Annam.

The twelve 使君 Su-quan.—958-968.

At the time of the death of HAU the country was divided into twelve 州 CHAU. Their Governors refused to recognize the authority of the Ngo Family, and each of them proclaimed himself king in his own district. This state of things lasted for ten years.

The 丁 Dinh Dynasty.—968-981.

One of the above-mentioned Governors took into his service DINH BO-LANH, an Annamese, who fought against, and finally conquered the other eleven Governors, and in 968 proclaimed himself king under the name of 先皇 TIEN-HOANG, giving to his kingdom the name of 大越 Dai-viet.

His reign lasted 25 years and was very glorious. He made a commencement in the work of organizing the country, passed good laws which were fairly administrated, kept up a regular army, and coined cash. At his death the country again fell into a state of anarchy. He had nominated as his successor his third son HAN-LANG, but this prince was murdered by his elder brother. The second brother TRIEU, aged six years only, then reigned for a short time, under the regency of a General of the palace; but soon this General found it more convenient to proclaim himself king, thus putting an end to the DINH Dynasty.

No. 1.—Obverse.—太平興寶 THAI-BINH-HUNG-BAO.

Reverse.—The character 丁 DINH, the name of the Dynasty.

No. 2.—Obverse, same as before.

Reverse, plain.

Coins made by the king 先皇 TIEN-HOANG. White copper.

The former 黎 Le Dynasty.—981-1010.

General LE-HOAN ascended the throne under the name of 天福 THIEN-PHUOC, and, following the policy initiated by his predecessor, secured peace on the frontiers by successful wars against China and Ciampa.

His son and successor, called LONG-VIET, was murdered by his brother 臥朝 NGOA-TRIEU, three days after he had come to power. This prince, whose conduct was extremely cruel and bad, soon afterwards proclaimed himself king and committed

every kind of excess and crime, inventing new tortures and ruining the country in every way. With his death the LE Dynasty came to an end.

No. 3.—Obverse.—天福鎮寶 THIEN-PHUOC-TRAN-BAO, or provincial coin of Thien-phuoc. At that time, as some fifty years before in China, the provinces of Annam were called 鎮 TRAN.

Reverse.—The character 黎 LE, the name of the Dynasty.

No. 4.—Obverse.—Only the character 黎 LE in the lower part of the square hole.

Reverse, plain.

The above two coins were cast in the 5th moon of the 5th year of 大行 DAI-HAN (986). They were made principally of white copper, and are rather smaller than the ordinary Chinese cash.

XII.

The 李 Ly Dynasty.—1010-1225.

Another general of the palace, LY CONG-UN, proclaimed himself king, and was afterwards known by the name of 太祖 THAI-TO. At this time the kingdom of Annam became known by the name of 交趾 Giao-chi, given by the Chinese Emperors; and the capital was established in 河內 Ha-noi. Thai-to found the necessary elements for the consolidation of the royal authority, and made good use of them, giving birth to the first of the three great dynasties which ruled Annam prior to the present century. During his reign regular taxation was established upon fisheries and agriculture, such taxes being paid in rice and cash. The civil administration and the army were also re-organized; and for the first time the king received solemn investiture from the Emperor of China, thus admitting the right of sovereignty which the Chinese Empire pretends to hold over Annam. It is from this time that the Chinese claimed tribute, and later on, to enforce those claims, their armies invaded and occupied the country.

Thai-to was succeeded in 1028 by his son 太宗 THAI-TONG, who during his reign of twenty-eight years had to fight only against the rebels who rose in arms in the frontier provinces. In 1036, having restored peace on the frontiers of China, he received from the Emperor the title of 南平王 *Nam- Binh-vuong*. The most important of these rebellions was that under 治高 TRI-CAO, who, defeated in 1050, revolted again in 1052, invaded the Chinese provinces of 廣東 Kuang-tung and 廣西 Kuang-si, and with the Annamese province of 廣原 Quang-nguyen founded the kingdom called 大南 DAI-NAM, in which he was proclaimed king by his followers under the name of 仁惠 NHON-HUE. In the early days of his reign success attended him, and he defeated the various Chinese armies sent against him; but finally he was beaten, and his kingdom disappeared with him in 1054.

During the reign of Thai-tong, Buddhism made great progress in Annam, the king ordering in 1031 the construction of nearly one thousand monasteries.

In 1055 聖宗 THANH-TONG, son of Thai-tong, came to power, and his first act was to change the name of the kingdom to that of 大越 Dai-viet, used during the DINH Dynasty. His reign was peaceful, and in 1072 he was succeeded by his son 仁宗 NHON-TONG, notorious for his wars against the Chinese. The Emperor 眞宗 CHIN-TSUNG of the Northern 宋 Sung Dynasty had decided to conquer Annam, and to that end he sent a numerous army, which, however, did not pass the 廣原 Quang-nguyen frontiers. The army was detained for several months on these frontiers, and suffered great loss in every engagement it had with the Annamese, till at length peace was signed, and the invaders returned to their own country.

神宗 THAN-TONG, a nephew of the last king, occupied the throne in 1128, and reigned until 1139; the only notice taken of him in the *Annals* was that he was mad. He was succeeded at his death by his son 英宗 ANH-TONG, during whose reign

the port of Hai-phong was opened to trade with Siam, the Malay Peninsula, and Burmah. In 1142 a bonze called 晉利 THAN-LOI raised a rebellion, and was proclaimed king under the name of 平王 BINH-VUONG. He was, at first, successful, collected numerous forces, and went to besiege the capital; but, routed on the way to Hanoi, he sought refuge in the mountains of Tunquin, where he was made a prisoner, taken to the capital, and decapitated.

In 1176 高宗 CAO-TONG, son of Anh-tong, came to power, and ten years afterwards he received his investiture from the Emperor of China, being called for the first time 安南王 Annam-Vuong, or *King of Annam*. He was corrupt and addicted to vice, and was dethroned by a military rebellion in 1211. His son 惠宗 HUE-TONG, supported by his father-in-law 陳李 TRAN-LY, succeeded to the throne. The kingdom was in a very disturbed state: the 李 Ly Dynasty had already lost the prestige acquired by its first kings, and the fear of imaginary or real dangers which surrounded the life of the king made him lose his reason and his throne. He became mad and abdicated in 1225 in favour of his daughter 昭感 CHIEU-THANH. The 陳 TRAN family did not lose such a good opportunity to obtain the crown; one of its members 陳景 TRAN-CANH married the queen, and, on her abdicating in favour of her husband, the Ly family, the true founders of the Annamese kingdom, disappeared from power.

No. 5.—Obverse.—順天大寶 Thuan-thien-dai-bao.

Reverse: plain.

Coin issued during the reign of 太祖 THAI-TO, the first king of this dynasty, (1010 to 1028).

The two following kings issued no coins.

No. 6.—Obverse.—乾符元寶 Can-phu-nguyen-bao.

Reverse: plain.

This coin was issued during the reign of the Emperor 太宗 THAI-TONG. (1028-1055.) It was during this epoch that the

use of small thin cash was first introduced, on account of the great scarcity of copper then existing in the kingdom. The Chinese traders immediately took advantage of this circumstance, and had Chinese cash recast into smaller ones, exporting them from their own country into Annam. In consequence of the abundance of coins caused by this proceeding the manufacture of cash was suspended by the Annamese government for a period of fifty years.

No. 7.—Obverse.—天符元寶 Thien-phu-nguyen-bao.

Reverse: plain.

Diminutive coin made during the reign of the Emperor 仁宗 NHON-TONG in his seventh nien-hao. It is of white copper, and the character 元 Nguyen of the obverse is written in seal characters.

No. 8.—Obverse.—大定通寶 Dai-dinh-thong-bao.

Reverse: plain.

No. 9.—Obverse.—Same as No. 8.

No rim on the Reverse.

No. 10.—Obverse.—Same as No. 8, but varying in the distribution of the four characters.

Reverse: plain.

Diminutive coins made during the reign of King 英宗 ANH-TONG (1139-1176), during his second nien-hao.

No. 11.—Obverse.—天感通寶 Thien-cam-thong-bao.

Reverse: plain.

Diminutive coin made during the reign of the same king in his fourth nien-hao.

No. 12.—Obverse.—天資通寶 Thien-tu-thong-bao.

Plain reverse.

Diminutive coin issued by the King 高宗 CAO-TONG (1176-1211), in his second nien-hao.

No. 13.—Obverse.—治平通寶 Tri-binh-thong-bao.

Reverse without rim.

Nos. 14 and 15.—Obverse.—治平元寶 Tri-binh-nguyen-bao. The character 元 nguyen is written in two different forms of the *tchuen* or seal characters.

Reverse.—No. 14 plain; No. 15 without rim.

Diminutive coins issued by the former king in his fourth nien-hao.

XIII.

The 陳 Tran Dynasty.—1225-1414.

By the marriage of the Queen 昭皇 CHIEU-HOANG with the Prince 陳景 TRAN-CANH the new dynasty came to power which governed Annam for two centuries.

TRAN-CANH, afterwards known by the name of 太宗 THAI-TONG, was so unfortunate in his domestic affairs, that he ran away from the palace and took refuge in a pagoda, refusing to reign any longer. He was requested by his courtiers to return to the capital, but as the Chinese were then invading the kingdom, he went to the frontier with his army and drove them back to their own country.

Tired however of the throne, Thai-tong abdicated in 1258 in favour of his son 聖宗 THANH-TONG, who had to fight and drive away the Mongols then invading Annam for the first time. But he ultimately had to agree to pay a triennial tribute to China, which has been continued to the present day. The rest of his reign was peaceful; following his father's example, he abdicated in 1279 in favour of his son 仁宗 NHON-TONG.

When this king ascended the throne, an order was received from the Emperor KUBLAI that he should personally appear at his court. The king refused to accede to this demand, and thus originated the second Mongol invasion of the country, in 1285, by an army of 500,000 men commanded by OMANHI. A brother of the king, called TRAN ICH-TAC, took the side of the Mongols, and together they defeated the Annamese

army, driving the king to the mountains of the 清華 Thanh-hoa province. Once masters of the country, the invaders raised the treacherous Tran Ich-tac to the throne, but the loyal Annamese very soon gathered a fresh army which defeated the Mongols in several battles, and compelled them to recross the frontiers. In 1286 another Mongol expedition came to Annam, but was also defeated and driven back to China. In 1288 peace was signed. Four years afterwards the King Nhong-tong abdicated in favour of his son 英宗 ANH-TONG. Nothing particular is mentioned about him in the *Annals*, except that he abolished the custom followed by his predecessor of tattooing on the legs the picture of a dragon as a mark of nobility and sign of valour.

Anh-tong also abdicated in 1314 in favour of his son 明宗 MINH-TONG, whose reign was peaceful and devoted to the organization of the country. Following the rule established by his predecessors, the king ceded the throne in 1330 in favour of his son 憲宗 HIEN-TONG. This king died after a reign of twelve years without leaving a direct heir, so his younger brother 裕宗 DU-TONG was made king under the regency of his father, the King Minh-tong.

During the reign of Du-tong the kingdom was on several occasions desolated by droughts and floods, which necessitated frequent distributions of rice and cash to the needy. There was also a considerable number of rebels and thieves in the provinces, which were taken prisoners and beheaded. At this time the export trade of Annam was largely developed, and the number of foreign vessels arriving at its coasts became quite important.

King Du-tong died in 1368 without leaving a direct heir, and on this account there is an interregnum of two years in the history of Annam, passed in fights and quarrels between the members of the Royal family. At last, in 1370, 藝宗 NGHE-TONG was proclaimed king; at first he had to maintain his rights against another Royal Prince, and three years later

he was driven from his capital by the hordes of Ciampa who invaded the country. The king then abdicated in favour of his younger brother 睿宗 DUE-TONG, who in 1378 was killed in a war against Ciampa.

Then came to power a nephew of the King Nghe-tong, called Prince KIEN, and designated by the name of 廢帝 PHE-DE, who, after a reign fraught with disturbances and rebellions, was dethroned and succeeded in 1390 by 順宗 THUAN-TONG. It was at this period that the decline of Annam's power set in. The kings were unable either to repress the rebellions which broke out in the provinces, or to resist the invasions of neighbouring tribes. The people lived in a continual state of war, and this contributed to the rise, above their ordinary sphere, of the more fortunate generals. The result was the same as in every country in the world: the military prestige gained by the victories of those generals increased their ambitious views and made them anxious to place the crown on their own heads, either by palace intrigues, or by a rebellion of the soldiers under their command. Thus, during the reign of Thuan-tong, it was easy to predict the course of events. His power was altogether in the hands of General 胡峰季 Ho QUI-LY, whose influence during the last reign had already been paramount. In the same year in which Thuan-tong was proclaimed king, General Ho had the good fortune to defeat the mobs of a rebel bonze who had revolted in the province of Thanh-hoa under the name of 昌符 XUONG-PHU; and to bring to a successful close a long campaign against the armies of Ciampa. Peace was restored in the country, and its real ruler Ho QUI-LY devoted himself to its administration, instituting the laws relating to Paper-money, as we have already seen. He also ordered the construction of a new city which was to be made the capital of the kingdom. This town, built in the province of 清華 Thanh-hoa, was called 西都 Tai-do or *Western Capital*, and the Court took possession of it in the 11th moon of 1398.

Four months later Ho Qui-ly forced the King Thuan-tong to resign in favour of 少帝 THIEU-DE, a boy three years old. During the ceremonies of his proclamation, Ho Qui-ly nearly became the victim of a conspiracy against his life by the Lords and Mandarins; but they had to pay dear for it, as nearly four hundred of them lost their heads in consequence. At last this general became weary of supporting mock kings, and in 1402 took the throne for himself. His history will be continued later on when dealing with other rebels. He was dethroned in 1407 by the intervention of the Chinese army, and the Annamese proclaimed 簡定帝 GIAN DINH-DE as their king, and proceeded to fight in the 乂安 Nghe-an province against the customary invaders of the country. But another 陳 Tran Prince raised his banner against him, and having assembled a numerous army, proclaimed himself king in 1410 under the name of 重光帝 TRUNG QUAN-DE. This political division of the country was only favorable to the Chinese invaders, as was soon seen by the two Annamese parties, who in consequence joined hands under the supremacy of TRUNG QUANG. But it was already too late, as the Chinese had made great progress, and at last, in 1414, made Trung Quang prisoner, subdued Annam, and caused it to become a province of the Chinese Empire.

No. 16.—Obverse.—元豐通寶 Nguyen-phong-thong-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 17.—Same as before, but having the character 元 written in the running hand style.

Diminutive coins issued by King 太宗 THAI-TONG (1225-1258) in his third nien-hao.

No. 18.—Obverse.—紹豐平寶 Thieu-phong-binh-bao, or cheap coin of Thieu-phong.

Reverse without rim.

No. 19.—Same as before, but having the character 紹 written in the running hand style.

No. 20.—Obverse.—Same as before, but having 元寶 Nguyen-bao or original coin, instead of 平寶 Binh-bao. The four characters are written in the seal style.

Diminutive coins issued by King 裕宗 DU-TONG (1342-1370) in his first nien-hao.

No. 21.—Obverse.—大治通寶 Dai-tri-thong-bao.

Reverse: plain.

No. 22.—Same as before, but of smaller size.

No. 23.—Same as before, but having 元寶 Nguyen-bao instead of Thong-bao.

Of all kings of the Tran Dynasty, Du-tong cast most cash, and this was due to the calamities suffered by the country during his reign; for, owing to the repeated loss of crops, there were frequent distributions of cash to the people. This king was also the first who, during his second nien-hao, cast the three above coins of size equal to those current in China.

His successor did not cast cash, but some were issued by the rebels who were in arms from this period until the end of the dynasty.

XIV.

REBELS.

In Annam not only those chiefs are considered rebels who revolted in the provinces and held out for a longer or shorter time, but also those who succeeded in obtaining possession of the capital of the kingdom and took their seat upon the throne, without being recognized as true kings in the *Annals*. During the Tran Dynasty, as well as during the following 黎 Le and 阮 Nguyen Dynasties, there were insurgent chiefs without number who raised the standard of rebellion in the Annamese provinces, but only those who cast cash will be mentioned. And it will not perhaps be out of place to say that the chapters on rebel coinage must not be taken as complete, for after experiencing great difficulties in classifying the coins

under this head, there still remains a quantity of cash about the issue of which no satisfactory information could be obtained.

Rebel 日禮 Nhut-le.

1368-1370.

The king DU-TONG died in the 5th moon of 1368 without leaving a successor to the throne, and NHUT-LE appeared as pretender. He was the son of an actress, who, being *enceinte*, married Prince 恭 CUNG, brother of DU-TONG. When that king died, Nhut-le, supported by his mother and by some officials of the palace, was proclaimed king in the capital and took 咸紹 CAM-THIEU for the name of his reign. His government lasted until the 10th moon of 1370, when the proper king took the palace by storm, and making Nhut-le a prisoner, put him to death by bambooning.

No. 24.—Obverse.—咸紹元寶 Cam-thieu-nguyen-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 25.—Same as before, but having the character 寶 Bao written in a contracted form.

Coins cast by the rebel above referred to.

Rebel 阮 Nguyen.

1381-1382.

King 廢帝 PHE-DE, whose treasury was exhausted owing to the heavy expenses incurred in the prosecution of the war on the frontiers, ordered the taxes to be raised. This measure caused great discontent among the people, and the province of 北江 Bac-giang revolted under a man of low extraction called 阮 NGUYEN, who in the 8th moon proclaimed himself king under the name of 熙元 HI-NGUYEN. Soon afterwards troops came to pacify the province, and at the beginning of 1382 Hi-nguyen disappeared.

No. 26.—Obverse.—熙元通寶 Hi-nguyen-thong-bao.

The characters 元 nguyen and 寶 bao are written in the seal form.

Reverse without rim.

Coin cast by Hi-nguyen.

Rebel 使 Su.

1391-1392.

This SU was a bonze who rose in arms in the 6th moon of 1391. As for some time he had no royal troops to oppose him, he proclaimed himself king under the name of 天聖 THIEN-THANH, and had time and leisure to recruit a numerous army which arrived before the capital and surrounded it. The capital was captured in the 12th moon of 1391, and he reigned in it three days, but was soon afterwards defeated, and being made a prisoner by General 皇 HOANG, was put to death by being slowly cut to pieces.

No. 27.—Obverse.—天聖元寶 Thien-thanh-nguyen-bao.

The character 寶 Bao written in the seal form.

Reverse without rim.

No. 28.—Same as before, but with 元寶 Nguyen-bao written in seal characters.

No. 29.—Same as No. 28, but of smaller size.

Coins cast by the rebel ~~NGUYEN~~ LE. 蘇.

The 胡 Ho rebellion.

1402-1407.

Rebel 胡 撻 季 Ho QUI-LY.—1402-1403.—When referring to the history of the Tran Dynasty, mention was made of General Ho QUI-LY, who in 1402 proclaimed himself king. In fact Ho Qui-ly was more than an ordinary rebel, and he may be styled an usurper, as he had possession of the capital, and governed the whole of Annam under the name of reign

of 聖元 THANH-NGUYEN. In 1403 he abdicated in favour of his son Ho HAN-THUONG.

Nos. 30-33.—Obverse.—聖元通寶 Thanh-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse, without rim.

These four coins are different in size, and are made of white copper. No. 31 has the hole in the middle round instead of square.

Rebel 胡漢蒼 Ho HAN-THUONG.—1403-1407.

In the third moon of 1403, as mentioned above, Ho QUI-LY left the throne he had usurped to his son HAN-THUONG, though still keeping the reins of government for himself. The first act of the new king was to try to obtain investiture from the Emperor of China, and to this end he sent several embassies announcing that the Royal TRAN family was extinct. The Court of Nanking ordered exact information to be furnished of what had happened in Annam, and for this purpose sent to that country the Imperial Commissioner 季 Li, who on his return from his journey to Annam made a report to the Emperor in which he stated that both Ho QUI-LY and Ho HAN-THUONG were only common rebels. In 1406, the Chinese decided to occupy the country, taking advantage of the great confusion existing at the time, and passed the frontiers in great numbers. After several battles between the Chinese armies and the troops of the rebels Ho, in which victory remained with the former, in the 5th moon of 1407 both Ho QUI-LY and Ho HAN-THUONG were made prisoners by the Chinese in the province of 清華 Thanh-hoa, and were murdered by the guard escorting them to China.

The Chinese remained in Annam, fighting against the followers of the TRAN Dynasty who had revolted and proclaimed king 簡定帝 GIAN-DINH-DE.

No. 35.—Obverse.—漢元通寶 Han-nguyen-thong-bao,

or original coin of HAN-NGUYEN, the name of the reign of Ho HAN-THUONG.

Reverse, plain.

Coin cast of red copper.

No. 36.—Same as before, but having the characters 聖寶 Thanh-bao, or holy coin, instead of 元寶 Nguyen-bao.

Rebel 天平 Thien-binh.

1405-1406.

THIEN-BINH was an Annamese who had taken refuge at the Chinese court at Nanking when the throne of his country was usurped by Ho QUI-LY. In 1405, he ordered the standard of rebellion to be raised in the province of 交安 Nghe-an, and represented himself to be a descendant of the Royal TRAN Family. His followers proclaimed him king under the name of 天平 THIEN-BINH, but, in default of the aid promised to them by the Chinese, they were defeated in 1406 by the troops sent against them by Ho HAN-THUONG. The chief THIEN-BINH remained in Nanking during the revolt of his followers and did not go to Annam.

No. 37.—Obverse.—天平通寶 Thien-binh-thong-bao.

Reverse, plain.

Coin cast during the above-mentioned rebellion.

Rebel 羅平王 Loc-binh Vuong.

1420.

A slave belonging to the TRAN Family rose against the Chinese invaders, and presented himself as a great-grandson of king 睿宗 DUE-TONG. He gathered his followers in the province of 諒山 Lang-son, and in a month had an army of ten thousand men. He was then proclaimed king of Annam, and took the name of 永寧 VINH-NINH as the designation of his reign. He was soon attacked, however, and defeated by the Chinese troops sent against him, and disappeared from the country, nothing more being ever heard of him.

No. 38.—Obverse.—永寧通寶 Vinh-ninh-thong-bao.

Reverse, plain.

Coin cast by Loc-binh Vuong.

XV.

Chinese domination and war of independence.

1414-1428.

It has already been noticed that the Chinese invaded Annam in 1407, and, after seven years of resistance from the armed rebels and the Annamese who remained loyal to the last two kings of the TRAN Dynasty, they occupied the country, and it was formally annexed to China. But this domination was never consolidated, and did not last very long, on account of the coming to the front of the Annamese hero 黎利 LE-LOI.

To pay the numerous troops sent to Annam, the Chinese Commander-in-Chief LY-BAN ordered in 1419 the following cash to be cast.

No. 39.—Obverse.—交趾通寶 Giao-chi-thong-bao, or public currency of Giao-chi (Annam.)

Reverse, plain.

The metal employed for the casting of these cash was very bad and mixed with a great quantity of lead and sand. As they were not made in large quantities, specimens are very difficult to procure at the present day.

Towards the end of 1417, there appeared in the province of 交安 Nghe-an the Annamese 黎利 LE-LOI, the chief of the party fighting for independence against the Chinese. His good fortune was by no means continuous, and he suffered several defeats; but his personal valour and his power over the Annamese armies kept up the movement and enabled him to inflict severe losses upon the Chinese army, and to force it to retire from the country.

In 1426 LE-LOI proclaimed a descendant of the TRAN Dynasty king of Annam under the name of 天慶 THIEN-KHANH, but his power was always eclipsed by that of LE-LOI, who in 1428, when Annam was freed from the invader, proclaimed himself king, giving birth to the second 黎 LE Dynasty.

During LE-LOI's rebellion several coins were cast for the payment of his followers. They are all of diminutive size, and the copper employed varies in colour according to the provinces wherein the coins were cast.

No. 40.—Obverse.—安法元寶 An-phap-nguyen-bao.

The character 元 Nguyen written in the seal form.

Plain reverse.

No. 41.—Same as before, but having 元寶 Nguyen-bao written in seal characters.

No. 42.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse, without rim.

No. 43.—Same as before, but having the hole in the middle round instead of square.

No. 44.—Obverse.—正法元寶 Chanh-phap-nguyen-bao

The characters 元寶 Nguyen-bao, written in the seal style.

Reverse, without rim.

No. 45.—Obverse.—治聖元寶 Tri-thanh-nguyen-bao.

Reverse, plain.

Only the character 寶 Bao is written in the seal form.

Nos. 46, 47 and 48.—Obverse same as before, but having 平寶 Binh-bao instead of 元寶 Nguyen-bao. The four characters written in plain form. No. 48 has the hole in the middle round.

Reverse, without rim.

No. 49.—Obverse.—太法平寶 Thai-phap-binh bao.

Reverse, without rim.

No. 50.—Obverse.—聖宮通寶 Thanh-quan-thong-bao.

Reverse. The adversative particle 乃 noi, the meaning of which is uncertain.

Coin made of tin and lead.

XVI.

The 黎 Le Dynasty.

1428-1785.

1st King.—太祖 THAI-TO. 1428-1437.—The successful 黎利 LE-LOI was the leader of the revolt against Chinese rule. He expelled the invading army from the country, and, on the 15th day of the 4th moon of 1428, proclaimed himself king in 河內 Ha-noi, giving rise to the dynasty which governed Annam for a long period. The reign of LE-LOI was comparatively a quiet one, and all his army had to do was to subdue some wild tribes of 太原 Thai-nguyen and 復禮州 Phuc-le-chau. LE-LOI obtained investiture from the Emperor of China, by the payment of 50,000 taels of gold; he devised good administrative laws, which, however, were no sooner published than they were, unfortunately, altogether lost sight of.

2nd King.—太宗 THAI-TONG. 1434-1443.

The reign of Prince 元龍 NGUYEN-LONG, younger son of LE-LOI, was a peaceful one. He contributed materially to the development of the interests of the country, but made several mistakes in his policy, one of the greatest being the sentence of death passed upon General 黎察 LE-SAT, a colleague of LE-LOI. In 1437 he obtained investiture from the Emperor of China, receiving a gold seal in the form of a camel, weighing one hundred taels.

3rd King.—仁宗 NHON-TONG. 1443-1459.—The Prince 邦畿 BANG-KI, son of the last-mentioned king, ascended the throne when he was only two years old. He had some difficulties with China about the kingdom of Ciampa, but those were soon settled by his yielding to the Imperial will, and giving liberty to the king of Ciampa, who had been detained in An-

nam as a prisoner. In the 10th moon of 1459 BANG-KI was murdered by the followers of his elder brother 宜民 NGHI-DAN, who proclaimed himself king, and reigned during eight months. His name is not included in the list of sovereigns in the *Annals*, as he was considered a rebel.

4th King.—聖宗 THANH-TONG. 1460-1498.—Nghi-dan having disappeared, his brother 思誠 TU-THANH, fourth son of THAI-TONG, was proclaimed king. During his reign the kingdom of Ciampa was destroyed, and its territories incorporated with Annam. The *Annals* are loud in the praise of this king, who evidently raised the country to its highest degree of splendour and wealth.

5th King.—憲宗 HIEN-TONG. 1498-1505.—Out of thirty four sons left by the last monarch, the crown passed to the elder, called 鐸 TANG, who devoted himself to the organisation of the army, although the kingdom had the good fortune of remaining in a peaceful state during his reign.

6th King.—肅宗 TUC-TONG. 1505.—The Prince 遵 TUAN, third son of the last king, only occupied the throne during six months. His history may be briefly summed up by stating that as soon as he had performed the burial rites over the remains of his father, he died himself.

7th King.—威穆帝 OAI-MUC-DE. 1505-1509.—This Prince was the second son of king HIEN-TONG. Proclaimed king by a palace intrigue, he immediately showed his cruel nature by ordering the murder of the Queen Dowager and of the Minister of Rites. During his reign the 莫 MAC family began to assume the first position in the kingdom. The disorderly conduct of this monarch very soon disgusted the mandarins as well as the people; and the army, which then began to be of first importance in the country, revolted under the command of General 黎譔 LE-XINH. The king, being incapable of putting down this rebellion, committed suicide by taking poison, on the 1st day of the 12th moon of 1509.

8th King.—襄翼帝 TUC-TONG-DE. 1509-1517.—During this rebellion General 璘 MINH had proclaimed as king of Annam,

his own brother 宗 TONG, whose history will be found with that of the rebels. When TONG died, VINH seized the throne for himself in the last moon of 1509, taking 洪順 HONG-THUAN for the name of his reign. The example of his revolt and success was contagious, rebels appearing in all the provinces, and in 1511 the king very nearly lost his throne, being saved by the personal valour of General 鄭 TRINH. This king did not attend to the well-being of his people, but devoted himself entirely to his own pleasures. He ordered the construction of boats to be manned by naked women, and invented many other ways of pandering to his lustful desires. To the mild remonstrances made on this subject by General TRINH, the king replied by ordering him to be bamboozed. The General revenged himself by revelling with his troops, and he murdered the king in 1517.

TRINH, being then master of the country, took advantage of this to proclaim as king a boy of eight years called 光治 QUANG-TRI, who reigned only three days, and was later on strangled in the province of 清華 Thanh-hoa.

Another general called 阮 NGUYEN appeared in arms against the General TRINH, and he proclaimed as king the Prince 誼 Y. At that time the rebels had in their power more than half the kingdom, and allusion will subsequently be made to their struggles. Then began the rivalry between the two families of 鄭 TRINH and 阮 NGUYEN. Their power increased to such an extent that they ended by abolishing the royal authority altogether. The NGUYEN family were soon compelled to retire to 廣南 Quang-nam, where they became independent, giving birth to the kingdom of Cochinchina, which two hundred years afterwards conquered Tunquin.

The Trinh, being Lords of the Palace, except on very rare occasions, always lived at the royal court of the LE kings. They were at the head of the army, they appointed successors to the kings, and they governed the country under the veil of a king who was made to disappear when he did not serve the

interests of the Lords. This great authority at length became hereditary, and thus called forth another dynasty side by side with the Royal LE.

Another family of successful Generals then appeared on the scene, and ultimately becoming more powerful than the two last-named, drove out the LE Dynasty and usurped the throne. This was the 莫 MAC family, whose real power began in 1508, when one of its members was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the 天武 Thien-vo, the king's guards. The history of this family will be treated in chapter XVIII.

9th King.—昭宗 Chieu-tong. 1517-1523.—Was the Prince 誼 Y, who practically neither reigned nor governed. He had no personal history, and that of his country is reduced to a record of the contests between the Generals TRINH, NGUYEN, and MAC. The latter had the advantage for a time, and 莫登庸 MAC DANG-DUNG had the good fortune of overcoming not only his rivals, but also the rebels who existed in the provinces. He obtained from the king the appointment as Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and his power was so great, that the king himself tried to escape from it, and one night quietly ran away from the palace to General TRINH's camp to obtain assistance. MAC at once took advantage of the situation, and after having appointed as king the Prince 春 Xuan, pursued the fugitive monarch as far as the Laos frontier, where he was made a prisoner, kept in captivity for five years, and finally murdered.

10th King.—恭皇 CUNG-HOANG. 1523-1527.—The Prince 春 XUAN mentioned above was proclaimed king under the name of 統元 THONG-NGUYEN, and led a happy life to the end of his reign. He was relieved of the duties of his position by MAC DANG-DUNG, who enlivened his days with every sort of pleasure up to the 4th moon of 1527, when the king was forced to abdicate in favour of his first general, who lost no time in signing the king's death sentence. Then Mac Dang-dung proclaimed himself king of Annam under the

name of 明德 MINH-DUC, and occupied the whole country until 1533, when he had to retire to the North.

11th King.—莊宗 TRANG-TONG. 1533-1549 —One son of the Prince 諱 Y, called 寧 NINH, came down from the Ai-lao, where he had taken refuge, in company with General 阮金 NGUYEN-CAM, and with an army of ten thousand followers began the work of reconquering his kingdom from the usurper. His first act was to send an embassy to China to explain to the Emperor 嘉靖 KIA-TSING the political occurrences which had taken place in Annam. In consequence of this, an Imperial Commissioner was appointed in 1536, and supported by a strong army, passed over the frontier from the province of Kuang-si. On the strength of the Commissioner's report to the Emperor, the sovereignty over Cochinchina was given to the descendant of the LE family, and Tunquin was left to be occupied by the MACS. But Prince Ninh, who reigned under the name of 元和 NGUYEN-HOA, continued the war against the Macs, taking from them the provinces of 清華 Thanh-hoa and 山南 Son-nam.

12th King.—中宗 TRUNG-TONG. 1549-1557.—During this reign began the supremacy of the TRINH family, to whom all the Le kings were soon subordinate. General 阮金 NGUYEN-CAM the restorer of the Le, had died of poison, and as his two sons were still of tender years, his position was occupied by General 鄭檢 TRINH-KIEM. The whole of this reign was passed by this general in making war against the Macs, and fearing the power that might be exercised by the two sons of Nguyen-cam on arriving at majority, he made them feudal lords of the provinces of 順化 Thuan-hoa and 廣南 Quang-nam then occupied by the Macs. The history of the principality thus formed, and from the rulers of which the present dynasty descended, will be found in chapter XIX.

13th King.—英宗 ANH-TONG. 1557-1572.—TRINH-KIEM followed up the war against the Macs, and with an army of fifty thousand men entered the province of 山南 Son-nam where he

was defeated. He soon, however, got men together again, and in 1560 reached the neighbourhood of Ha-noi, the capital of the Macs. In 1569 he transferred his power to his son 鄭從 TRINH-TONG, who was unable to occupy his position until he had fought against one of his brothers. He continued the war against the Macs in the province of Thanh-hoa, and for the first time, in 1572, sent the royal troops to fight against the NGUYEN in the Quang-nam; but they were defeated.

The power and authority of Trinh-tong in the palace were so great that the king was practically put aside. Desirous of ending this thralldom, Anh-tong ran away secretly to the province of 交安 Nghe-an. TRINH-TONG acted as the Macs had done previously; he appointed another king and went to Nghe-an where he made Anh-tong prisoner, and murdered him.

14th King — 世宗 THE-TONG. 1572-1599.—This king, who was proclaimed by TRINH-TONG, was naturally under his tutelage. The wars against the Macs went on, the king sometimes having to protect his territories against their invasions, and at other times invading Tunquin from the provinces of 寧平 Ninh-binh, 南定 Nam-dinh, and 興化 Hung-hoa.

TRINH-TONG's good fortune carried him as far as the walls of Hanoi, which capital he took by storm in 1592, burning and destroying it, and capturing MAU-HIEP, the Mac king. The same fate befell MAC TUYEN and MAC KINH-CHI, and after some diplomatic negotiations with the Emperor of China, Thrinhtong was allowed to exercise royal authority over the new provinces conquered from the Macs, who had only one small state left on the frontier. Then (1599) Trinh-tong was appointed 平安王 Binh-an-vuong, or *Peaceful Prince*. The king being sick he nominated his successor to the throne.

15th King.—敬宗 KINH-TONG. 1599-1619.—He was made king by the will of his father, but by the authority of Trinh-tong. This powerful Lord had to quell several military rebellions, and at one time he was very seriously menaced by

a conspiracy in which one of his own sons and the king had taken part. The conspiracy was discovered in time, and Trinh-tong, having made the king prisoner, hanged him in his own palace.

16th King.—神宗 THAN-TONG. 1619-1642.—This king was also nominated by TRINH-TONG, who was now growing old and feeble. He tried to secure the succession to his power by dividing it between his two sons, in order to avoid dissensions. But jealousy broke out in his family even before his death, as not only both his sons but also one of his brothers tried to secure his power. Trinh-tong was taken ill to his brother's house and there his younger son was murdered. The elder, called 鄭莊 TRINH-TANG, hearing of this, ran away to the province of Thanh-hoa, taking with him the king and the royal family. Trinh-tong was then driven away from his brother's place, and abandoned by the servants who had carried him away in a sedan chair, died alone on the road. So ended the statesman who had more capacity and energy than any other man mentioned in the whole of Annamese history, and who for the prosperity of the kingdom, as well as for his own protection, severed the heads of five kings and gave to the old LE dynasty a territory to govern.

TRINH-TRANG succeeded his father on the throne, and seeing the power of the Macs reduced to the small state of Cao-bang, directed his activity to subdue the Nguyen; but the royal armies were repulsed in every expedition they made against the Quang-nam.

In 1642 King THAN-TONG abdicated in favour of his son 祐 HUU.

17th King.—眞宗 CHON-TONG. 1642-1648.—Nothing worthy of notice occurred during his reign, except an expedition against the Quang-nam principality, where the Le troops again had to take to flight. The king died in 1648, and his father Than-tong ascended the throne for the second time.

神宗 THAN-TONG (2nd time) 1648-1662.—**TRINH-TANG** was attacked in 1653 by the NGUYEN armies, which took possession of the province of 交安 Nghe-an, after having annihilated the royal troops sent against them. He died of grief in 1654 and was succeeded by his son 鄭碩 **TRINH-THAC**, who at once despatched an army against the Nguyen, but was likewise defeated. In 1662 the king died.

18th King.—**玄宗** HUYEN-TONG. 1662-1673.—During his reign foreigners were forbidden to live in Annam, either for purposes of trade or religion. The king had still less power, if possible, than his predecessors, as Trinh-thac claimed the right of writing to and saluting him on equal terms, and of taking a seat on his left side at official receptions. In 1667 the Macs were finally driven away from Cao-bang.

19th King.—**嘉宗** GIA-TONG. 1672-1675.—During his reign Trinh-thac organized a formidable expedition against the Quang-nam principality, where he made war for seven months. But unable to obtain possession of the citadel of 陳寧 Tran-ninh, which he had besieged, and his army suffering great losses, he retired again to Tunquin.

20th King.—**熙宗** HI-TONG. 1675-1705.—He was a brother of the last king, and his reign was a more peaceful one than that of many of the former kings, as all he did was to quell some small rebellions and to fight against an invasion made from China by the Macs in 1677.

In 1683 **TRINH-THAC** died, leaving his position to his son 鄭干 **TRINH-CAN**, who was able to devote himself to the organization of public affairs in Tunquin and made several good laws, one of them forbidding gambling, for instance.

21st King.—**裕宗** DU-TONG. 1705-1727.—He was the son of the last king, who was forced to abdicate by Trinh-can. But this Lord had but little time to use this new and serviceable instrument, as he died in 1708 leaving his authority to his son 鄭矜 **TRINH-CANG**. The latter passed many good laws, some of them relating to mining and

coinage, of which mention has already been made. He persecuted the Christian missionaries without mercy, and in 1723 passed sentence of death upon one European, which sentence was duly carried out. In 1727 he forced the king to abdicate in favour of one of his sons, but some time afterwards both the king and himself died within a short space of time of each other.

22nd King.—永慶帝 VINH-KHANH-DE. 1727-1731.—The new Lord, son of TRINH-CANG, and called 鄭江 TRINH-GIANG, was very active, and took great pains for the good administration of the country. But like his predecessors, he wanted to govern as an absolute ruler, and not finding VINH-KHANH so serviceable as he desired, he degraded and imprisoned him in a fortress, where he was murdered four years afterwards.

23rd King.—純宗 THUAN-TONG. 1731-1735.—During his short reign no important event took place, with the exception of the printing of Annamese official books by order of the Government.

24th King.—愍宗 Y-TONG. 1735-1750.—Trinh-giang was still the absolute master of the government, but the extent of his authority was the cause of his ruin. He indulged in every kind of vice, and to obtain money for his pleasures put the public offices up for sale. He obtained from the Emperor of China the title of 安南上王 An-nam-thuong-vuong, or *Supreme King of Annam*, and this was the signal for the rushing to arms of the adherents of the LÊ Dynasty. It was then seen that the real king of Annam had no power as compared with the TRINH Lords. Rebels appeared in every part of the kingdom, and to hasten the destruction of the Trinh family, its representative GIANG handed over his power to a favorite eunuch. He was relieved of it in 1739, and 鄭營 TRINH-DINH took his place. In the following year the king abdicated.

25th King.—顯宗 HIEN-TONG. 1740-1786.—The rebellions which broke out in Tunquin during this period, were almost

without number. Princes belonging to the Royal family, generals, civil mandarins, common people, and out-casts from the hills, all rose in the provinces against the tyranny of the Trinh, as well as for their personal interests. Hien-tong was no more king than his predecessors, and Trinh-dinh bore up bravely against the weight of so many wars, which were at last subdued through the good organization of his army, and owing to the rapidity with which he moved from one province to the other. He died in 1765 and was succeeded by his son 鄭參 TRINH-SUM, who, having restored peace in Tunquin, availed himself of the troubles in Cochinchina caused by the 西山 Tay-son rebellion, to invade that country with an army of thirty thousand men, who soon occupied Hue, the capital of the Nguyen. Trinh-sum received there the submission of the rebel chief and handed over to him the government of the Quang-nam province. Hearing that rebels had made their appearance in Tunquin, Trinh-sum hurried back to Ha-noi, having king Hien-tong still with him. He died in 1781 and was succeeded by his son 鄭佳 TRINH-GIAI, who, seeing his power seriously endangered by a rebellion among his own troops, committed suicide in 1785, to avoid falling alive into the hands of the Tay-son chief 文惠 VAN-HUE. King Hien-tong was ill in his palace, when the rebel entered it and submitted at once to the royal authority. The king died in the 9th moon of 1785.

26th King.—昭統帝 CHIEU-THONG-DE. 1785 —The chief Tay-son, who perhaps at that time thought of reigning over Cochinchina only, consented to the proclamation of this king, and returned to his own country. But CHIEU-TONG made the same mistake as his predecessors in calling back the TRINH family and allowing them to resume their hereditary title of Lords. On receiving this news, HUE came at once to Tunquin, and in the 11th moon of the same year again took Ha-noi, the king escaping to 化寧 Bac-ninh. But Chieu-tong did not receive help from any quarter, and hiding himself in the

mountains, awaited the Chinese intervention which his wife and son went to seek from the Emperor K'ÏEN-LUNG. His reign ceased from that date, although he still continued to rank as king in the Chinese army. However, his power and authority were gone, and when the Chinese army was defeated, he had to fly to Peking, where he was appointed a Chinese mandarin of the fourth rank and was inscribed under the Tartar banners. His family also remained in China, and from that date the inhabitants of Tunquin, who had not lost their hatred for the Nguyen invaders, expected to find in every rebel who raised the flag of rebellion in their country a descendant of the old royal race. The last of these insurrections was that of the Brigade General LI HUNG-TSAI in 1878.

No. 51.—Obverse.—順天元寶 Thuan-thien-nguyen-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 太祖 THAI-TO, founder of the 黎 LE Dynasty.

The political convulsions which disturbed Annam at the begining of the fifteenth century, prevented the casting of any legal coin by the last seven kings of the 陳 TRAN Dynasty. But from the date of the accession to power of the Le family there was a manifest improvement in the manufacture of coins; excellent metal was used for the casting, and the work is equal to the best specimens of coins circulating in China at that time.

No. 52.—Obverse.—紹平通寶 Thieu-binh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 太宗 THAI-TONG during his first nien-hao (1434-1440.)

No 53.—Obverse.—大寶通寶 Dai-bao-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by the last named king, during his second nien-hao (1440-1443.)

No 54.—Obverse.—太和通寶 Thai-hoa-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 55.—Same as before, but of diminutive size, and reverse without rim.

Copper coins issued by King 仁宗 NHON-TONG during his first nien-hao, (1443-1453.) During his reign, Annam was engaged in a long continued war against the kingdom of Ciaupa and the tribes of Phuc-le-chao, Bon-man, Bao-lac, Tham-da, and An-phu, which caused again a scarcity of copper; and the Queen Regent of the kingdom during the minority of the king had to revert once more to the old system of casting small cash.

No. 56.—Obverse.—延寧通寶 Dien-ninh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by the above king during his second nien-hao (1453-1460.)

No. 57.—Obverse.—光順通寶 Quang-thuan-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 聖宗 THANH-TONG during his first nien-hao, (1460-1470.)

No. 58.—Obverse.—洪德通寶 Hong-duc-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by Thanh-tong during his second nien-hao, (1470-1498.)

The coins of this king reflect the great prosperity which existed in Annam during that period. The metal is of very good quality, and the casting resembles the *K'ai-yuen* coins of China.

No. 59.—Obverse.—景統通寶 Kien-thong-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 憲宗 HIEN-TONG (1498-1505.)

No. 60.—Obverse.—端慶通寶 Thoai-khanh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 威穆帝 Oai-muc-de (1505-1510.)

No. 61.—Obverse.—洪順通寶 Hong-thuan-thong-bao.
Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 襄翼帝 THUONG-DUC-DE (1510-1517.)

No. 62.—Obverse.—光紹通寶 Quang-thieu-thong-bao.
Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by King 昭宗 CHIEU-TONG (1517-1523.)

No. 63.—Obverse.—統元通寶 Thong-nguyen-thong-bao.
Plain reverse.

Copper coin issued by King 恭皇 Cung-hoang (1523-1528.)

No. 64.—Obverse.—元和通寶 Nguyen-hoa-thong-bao.
The two first characters are written in the seal style.

Reverse plain.

No. 65.—Same as before, but with the characters 通寶 Thong-bao written in a different style.

Copper coins issued by King 莊宗 TRANG-TONG (1533-1549.)

No. 66.—Obverse.—永壽通寶 Vinh-tho-thong-bao.
Reverse plain.

No. 67.—Same as before, but with the characters of the obverse written in the running hand style.

Copper coins issued by King 神宗 THAN-TONG during his third nien-hao (1655-1661.) On account of the great disorder prevailing in the kingdom at that time, there is no record of any coins having been cast from the middle of the sixteenth century until 1675, with the exception of the ones just referred to.

No. 68.—Obverse.—永治通寶 Vinh-tri-thong-bao.
Reverse plain.

No. 69.—Same as before but having on the obverse the character 元 *nguyen* instead of 通 *thong*, and the characters 治 元 *tri-nguyen* written in the seal style.

Copper coins issued by King 熙宗 *HI-TONG* during his first *nien-hao* (1675-1689.)

No. 70.—Obverse.—正和通寶 *Chanh-hoa-thong-bao*.

Reverse, plain.

Copper coin issued by the former king during his second *nien-hao* (1689-1705.)

No. 71.—Obverse.—永盛通寶 *Vinh-thanh-thong-bao*.

Reverse, plain.

No. 72.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse. A dot representing the sun above the hole, and the moon below.

No. 73.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse. The cycle character 巳 *ti* on the left of the hole, probably meaning that the cash was ordered to be cast during a fourth moon.

Coins issued by King 裕宗 *DU-TONG* during his first *nien-hao* (1705-1719.)

No. 74.—Obverse.—保泰通寶 *Bao-thoi-thong-bao*.

Reverse plain, with a narrow rim.

No. 75.—Obverse same as before.

Reverse. The sun and moon on the right and left sides of the hole.

Red copper coins issued by the last-named king during his second *nien-hao* (1705-1719.)

There is now an interruption of twenty years in the casting of cash till the coming to power of King 顯宗 *HIEN-TONG*. For some years, in consequence of disastrous inundations, there was a remission of taxation on the Annamese, the loss to the revenue caused thereby being made good by increased taxation on the Chinese. In 1737 the treasury became so empty that to fill it the officials put up honorary titles for public

sale. A mandarin could gain a step in rank by the payment of six hundred strings of cash, and the commonest man in the kingdom was able to obtain the highest rank by the payment of two thousand eight hundred strings.

In 1740 King HIEN-TONG ascended the throne, and during his reign a larger quantity of cash were cast than during that of any former king. Some of the coins issued under his directions have on the reverse the characters denoting the province or mint in which they were cast; and others, instead of the characters 通寶 *thong-bao*, *current coin*, or 元寶 *nguyen-bao*, *original coin* on the obverse, have other characters substituted as will be seen hereafter.

It was also at that time that the casting of larger cash began, these being meant to be given away as a royal reward to deserving officers; but owing to their number and the value of the copper used they soon found their way into circulation.

No. 76.—Obverse.—景興通寶 *Canh-hung-thong-bao*.

Reverse plain, with a broad rim.

Red and white copper.

No. 77.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Coin of smaller size and made of tin mixed with a little copper.

No. 78.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. A round dot over the hole.

No. 79.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. A dot on the right of the hole.

No. 80.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. A dot at the top, another at the bottom, and a moon on the left side of the hole.

No. 81.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character — *nhat*, *one*, meaning one cash, the value of the coin.

No. 82.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 大 Dai, *great*, for the province of 清 華 Thanh-hoa, the *great province*, in which the coin was issued.

No. 83.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 小 Siu, *small or minor*, meaning the other provinces of Tunquin.

No. 84.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 京 kinh, *capital*, for Hue.

No. 85.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 北 Bac, *north*, for the northern provinces.

No. 86.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 上 Thuong, *superior*, for the provinces near Yunnan.

No. 87.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 中 Trung, *middle*, for the province of Thanh-hoa.

All the above-mentioned coins have the character of the reverse above the hole.

No. 88.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 太 Thai, for the province of 太 原 Thai-nguyen.

No. 89.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse.—Same as No. 82.

The two last-named have the character of the reverse on the right side of the hole.

No. 90.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 工 Công, for the Board of Public Works by which the coin was issued.

No. 91.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 西 Tay, *west*, for the western provinces.

No. 92.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. Same as No. 87.

The last three coins have the character of the reverse under the hole.

No. 93.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The cyclical characters 庚申 Canh-than, corresponding to the year 1740.

No. 94.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The cycle characters 辛酉 Tan-dau, corresponding to the year 1741.

No. 95.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The cycle characters 壬戌 Nham-thuat, corresponding to the year 1742.

No. 96.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The characters 山西 Son-tay, name of a province of modern Tunquin.

No. 97.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The characters 山南 Son-nam, former name of a province of Tunquin.

No. 98.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The characters 八文 Bat-van, written in the 科斗 Khoa-dan style, meaning that the value of the coin is equal to eight small cash.

No. 99.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The characters 六分 Luc-phan, written in the 體篆 The-triem or seal style, in allusion to the weight of the cash.

No. 100.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76, but with the character Bao written in a contracted form.

Reverse plain.

No. 101.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76, but with the character 寶 Bao written in the running hand style.

Reverse plain.

No. 102.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76, but with the characters 景寶 Canh-bao written in the seal style.

Reverse plain.

No. 103.—Obverse.—Same as No. 102.

Reverse with two dots on the right side and under the hole.

No. 104.—Obverse.—Same as No. 102.

Reverse. Four curved lines on the four sides of the hole.

No. 105.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76, but with the characters 景通 Canh-thong written in the seal style.

Reverse plain.

No. 106.—Obverse.—Same as No. 105.

Reverse. Four straight lines on the four sides of the hole.

No. 107.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76, but with the four characters written in the seal style.

Reverse plain.

No. 108.—Obverse.—Same as No. 107.

Reverse. A dot above the hole.

No. 109.—Obverse.—Same as No. 107.

Reverse. A dot on the left hand corner above the hole.

No. 110.—Obverse.—Same as No. 107.

Reverse. Two dots above the hole.

No. 111.—Obverse.—景興巨寶 Canh-hung-cu-bao, or *Precious currency of CANH-HUNG.*

Reverse plain.

No. 112.—Obverse.—Same as before, but with the character 寶 Bao written in a contracted form.

No. 113.—Obverse.—Same as No. 111.

Reverse. A dot above the hole.

No. 114.—Obverse.—Same as No. 111.

Reverse. The character nhat, *one.*

No. 115.—Obverse.—Same as No. 111.

Reverse. The characters 八文 Bat-van, 'as explained in No. 98.

No. 116.—Obverse.—景興永寶 Canh-hung-vinh-bao, or *Perpetual currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 117.—Obverse.—The characters 正寶 Chinh-bao, or *Legal currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 118.—Obverse.—The characters 大寶 Dai-bao, or *Great currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 119.—Obverse.—The characters 用寶 Dung-bao, or *Usual currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 120.—Obverse.—The characters 太寶 Thai-bao, or *Great currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 121.—Obverse.—The characters 重寶 Trung-bao, or *Heavy currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 122.—Obverse.—The characters 順寶 Thuan-bao, or *Favourable currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 123.—Obverse.—The characters 泉寶 Tuyen-bao, or *Rich currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 124.—Obverse.—The characters 宋寶 Tong-bao, or *Honourable currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 125.—Obverse.—The characters 中寶 Trung-bao, or *Central currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 126.—Obverse.—Same as before, but with the character 寶 Bao written in contracted form.

Reverse plain.

No 127.—Obverse.—The characters 內寶 Noi-bao, or *Interior currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 28.—Obverse.—Same as before, but with the character 寶 Bao written in a contracted form.

No. 129.—Obverse.—The characters 至寶 Chi-bao, or *Good currency*.

Reverse plain.

No. 130.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse plain.

This coin has a line running round the rim, both on the obverse and reverse. Its value is 50 copper cash.

No. 131.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse plain.

Value 100 copper cash.

No. 132.—Obverse.—Same as No. 123.

Reverse plain.

This cash also has a line running round the rim on the obverse and reverse. Value 50 copper cash.

No. 133.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The character 工 C^hung, for the Board of Public Works.

Value 100 copper cash.

No. 134.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The characters 平有 Binh-huu, the name of the Mint where the cash was cast.

Reverse plain.

Value 50 cash.

No. 135.—Obverse.—景興通用 Canh-hung-thong-dung, or usual currency of CANH-HUNG.

Reverse. Same as No. 134.

Value 50 cash.

No. 136.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The characters 山西 Son-dau, the name of the mint by which the coin was issued.

Value 100 cash.

No. 137.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76, but with a line running round the rim.

Reverse. The characters 平南 Binh-nam, name of the mint.

Value 100 cash.

No. 138.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The cycle characters 壬戌 Nham-thuat, corresponding to the year 1742.

This coin has a double rim on the obverse and reverse.
Value 100 cash.

No. 139.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. The cycle character 癸亥 Qui-hoi, corresponding to the year 1743, above and below the hole, and on both sides two dragons.

Value 100 cash.

No. 140.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. A dragon.

Value 100 cash.

No. 141.—Same as before, but thicker and of larger size.

Value 100 cash.

No. 142.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. A dragon playing with a pearl.

Nos. 143-148.—Obverse.—Same as No. 76.

Reverse. A dragon.

All these coins have a circular line running close to the rim on the obverse and reverse. They present many differences in the writing of the characters, the position of the dragon, and the thickness of the metal. All are of 100 cash value.

All the coins comprised between the numbers 76 and 148 were issued by King 顯宗 Hien-tong, (1740-1786.)

No. 149.—Obverse.—昭統通寶 Chieu-thong-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 150.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The number *nhat*, *one*, on the top of the hole.

No. 151.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The number *one* on the bottom of the hole.

No. 152.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The moon on the right hand side of the hole, and the sun on the left side.

No. 153.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. Four curved lines on the four sides of the hole.

No. 154.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The character 中 *Trung*, *middle*, for the province of Thanh-hoa, in the upper part above the hole.

No. 155.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The character 山 *Son*, for the Son-nam province in which the coin was issued.

No. 156.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The character 大 *Dai*, for the province of Thanh-hoa in which the coin was issued.

No. 157.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. Same as No. 155, but with the character 山 *Son* at the foot of the square hole.

No. 158.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. Same as No. 154, but having also the character 中 *Trung* on the lower part of the hole.

No. 159.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The character 正 *Chanh*, for the upper provinces of Tunquin. This coin is smaller than the others issued during this period, and is made of copper mixed with tin.

No. 160.—Same as No. 159, but of the ordinary size.

No. 161.—Same as No. 160, but with a small dot on the right hand corner of the lower part of the square hole.

No. 162.—Obverse.—Same as No. 149.

Reverse. The characters 山南 *Son-nam*, the name of the province in which the coin was issued.

All the above coins from No. 149 to No. 162 were issued by King 昭統帝 Chieu-tong-de (1786 to 1789.)

XVII.

Rebels.

1459-1532.

Rebel 諒山王 Lang-son Vuong.

1459-1460.

The prince of 諒山 Lang-son, called 宜民 NGHI-DAN, was the eldest son of 太宗 THAI-TONG, the second king of the 黎 LE Dynasty. Having been excluded from the succession to the crown by the nomination of his younger brother 邦畿 BANG-KI in 1443, he conceived the design of murdering him and ascending the throne. Nghi-dan set about his plans with great caution, endeavouring to gain over to his cause several mandarins, and at last, on the third day of the 10th moon of 1459, he secretly penetrated into the palace and ordered the king and his own mother to be killed.

Proclaimed king under the name of 天興 THIEN-HUNG, his first care was to send an embassy to China asking for the imperial investiture; but another palace intrigue put an end to his reign on the 6th moon of 1460. After having been degraded by the mandarins, he was sentenced to death.

No. 163.—Obverse.—天興通寶 Thien-hung-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Coin made by the rebel king.

Rebel 金江王 Cam-giang Vuong.

1509.

Tired of suffering the tyranny of King 威穆帝 OAI-MUC-DE, a general of fortune called 黎譔 LE-VINH, who had distinguished himself in 1508 by driving back from Annam a

Chinese savage tribe then invading its frontiers from Yunnan, raised the banner of rebellion in Cochinchina in 1509, putting forward his brother 宗 Tong, prince of 金江 Cam-giang, who was proclaimed king under the name of 太平 THAI-BINH. The war was carried on with great rapidity, and the rebels soon invaded Tunquin after defeating the royal troops in several engagements. King Oai-muc-de, who had detained in his palace the prince of Cam-giang, ordered him and two of his younger brothers to be murdered. General UINH, exasperated at the receipt of this news, started at once for the capital, and arrived there just as Oai-muc-de had committed suicide.

For the payment of the rebel troops the following coins were issued.

No. 164.—Obverse.—交治通寶 Giao-chi-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 165.—Obverse.—太平通寶 Thai-binh-thong-bao.

Reverse without rim.

Coin of diminutive size.

No. 166.—Same as the last, but with the characters 聖寶 Thanh-bao instead of Thong-bao.

There were two different kinds of metal employed in the manufacture of the two last-named coins, white and red copper.

Rebel 陳新 Tran-tuan.

1511-1512.

This rebel revolted in the province of 興化 Hung-hoa, and soon had a numerous army which spread terror into the neighbouring countries. General 鄭 Trinh was despatched against him by the court, but his army was defeated, and TRAN-TUAN laid his plans for besieging the capital. The confidence which Tran-tuan acquired by his successes was ultimately the cause of his ruin; for no proper watch being

kept in his camp, General Trinh entered it one night, followed by thirty men, and penetrating into the chief's tent, murdered him.

No. 167—Obverse—陳新公寶 Tran-tuan-cong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Coin issued by the above-named rebel.

Rebel 陳景 Tran-cao.

1516-1521.

This rebel appeared in the province of 海楊 Hai-duong, giving himself out to be a great-grandson of King 陳太宗 TRAN THAI-TONG, and pretending that he were a living incarnation of Buddha. He soon gathered a numerous army, his soldiers being all dressed in black and having their heads shaved. After twice besieging Hanoi, he took it by storm in 1517, and then proclaimed himself king under the name of 天應 THIEN-UNG. He soon had to leave the capital, however, as the royal troops gathered round it in great numbers, and Thien-ung took refuge in the provinces of 朗原 Lang-nguyen and 海楊 Hai-duong, transferring his authority to his son 恭 CUNG and finally becoming a priest.

CUNG took 宣和 TUYEN-HOA as the name of his reign and succeeded in establishing a small kingdom consisting of the provinces of 朗原 Lang-nguyen and 京北 Kinh-bac. There he reigned in peace until 1521, when he was attacked and killed by the armies of 莫登庸 MAC DANG-DUNG.

No. 168—Obverse—天應通寶 Thien-ung-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Coin issued by the rebel king Tran-cao.

Rebel 光紹帝 Quang-thieu-de.

1531-1532.

During this period the MAC family had usurped the throne of Annam, but did not actually reign. Rebels without number revolted against their rule, and one of these was QUANG-THIEU,

a member of the royal LE family. In 1531 he assembled an army of loyal followers in the province of 清華 Thanh-hoa. Having defeated the troops commanded by MAC DANG-DUNG in person, he hastened to besiege the city of 西都 Tay-do (Hué.) His first successes were the cause of his ruin, just as it had happened before to many other rebel chiefs, for he allowed himself to be ignominiously surprised by General 莫國 Mac-quoc, and being made a prisoner, he was transferred to Hanoi and sentenced to death by cutting to pieces. His followers were soon disbanded and took refuge in the province of Ailao.

No. 169—Obverse—光統通寶 Quang-thieu-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

These coins have the same inscriptions as those issued by King 昭宗 Chien-tong; (1517) but they are not of such good workmanship, and the copper is nearly black.

XVIII.

The 莫 Mac and 阮 Nguyen Governments.

The 莫 Mac family.

1527-1667.

莫登庸 MAC DANG-DUNG. 1527-1530.—In chapter XVI notice was taken of General Mac Dang-dung, who made away with the LE Dynasty and proclaimed himself king under the name of 明德 MINH-DUC. Although numerous bands of rebels rose up in arms against him in nearly every province, he at first reigned over the whole of Annam, having his capital at Hanoi.

莫登瀛 MAC DANG-DINH (1530-1537) succeeded in 1530 through the abdication of his father MAC DANG-DUNG. In 1536 the Emperor of China sent a commission to study the political status of Annam, and in consequence of the report received he declared war against the MAC. Mac Dang-ding died at the

very time that the Chinese armies passed the frontiers of the kingdom in 1537, and his father, resuming the management of affairs, hurried to submit to the Imperial will, and declared himself to be a vassal of China. The Emperor then divided the territories of Annam into two kingdoms, giving that of Cochinchina to the LE family, and declaring Tunquin to be a feudatary state of China under the government of the MAC.

莫福海 MAC PHUOC-HAI. 1541-1546.—As already shown, on the death of MAC DANG-DING, his father MAC DANG-DUNG again took up the reins of government. He died in the second moon of 1541, and his grandson Phuoc-hai succeeded him. This prince at once asked for the confirmation of his power, which was granted him on the payment of a valuable tribute. He was very unfortunate in his wars with the LE rulers in the south, and lost several provinces in Tunquin.

莫福源 MAC PHUOC-NGUYEN. 1546-1561.—Was the son of PHUOC-HAI, and to hold the throne, he had to fight against his younger brother 中 Trung, who aspired to that position.

莫茂洽 MAC MAU-HIEP. 1561-1592.—Was the son of the last-named ruler. In his wars against the LE he lost his capital Hanoi, which he however reoccupied in 1573. Forgetting to take a lesson by his past misfortunes, he gave himself up to pleasure, and paid no attention to the great invasion of Tunquin which TRINH-TONG was then preparing. In 1592 he again lost his capital, and was made a prisoner by the LE troops. Carried to Hanoi, MAU-HIEP was condemned to be exposed to the sun in an iron cage for three days, and he was afterwards sentenced to be put to death by being slowly cut to pieces.

莫宣 MAC TUYEN. 1592.—His father MAU-HIEP had abdicated in his favour sometime before having been made a prisoner. TUYEN was not less unfortunate, however, for his troops were defeated by the LE armies. Soon after his accession he was made a prisoner and murdered.

莫敬至 MAC KING-CHI. 1592-1593.—This prince came to power by the death of TUYEN. He assembled the dispersed bands of his troops and formed in 東朝 Dong-trieu an army of seventy thousand men, with whom he defeated the forces sent against him by TRINH-TONG. But fortune soon turned against him, and in the first moon of 1593 his army was utterly defeated, and he himself made a prisoner by the royal LE troops.

莫敬恭 MAC KING-CUNG. 1593-1616.—The rest of MAC's army retired to the North of Tunquin, establishing the court and their camps in 萬寧 Van-ninh. Thence they began to devastate the territories of the LE, and became so troublesome that the king had to appeal to the Lord NGUYEN for help. With his aid the royal troops defeated the MAC several times, but the power of these Lords becoming very feeble, they appealed to the Emperor of China, accusing the Lords TRINH of having usurped the royal authority and making use of the name of the Le Dynasty merely to screen their position as real rulers of the country. The Emperor again despatched a Commission to Annam, and after hearing its report in 1598, he gave to the Mac family the sovereignty over the two provinces of 太原 Thai-nguyen and 高平 Cao-bang.

From this time the Lords MAC lost all their importance, and could only maintain themselves in their small territory by the help they received from China. They attempted the invasion of Tunquin on several occasions, but were always defeated, and in 1667 they were finally driven away from Cao-bang by TRINH-TAC. They reappeared as invaders of Tunquin in the same year, but their army, composed of undisciplined Chinese bands, was completely routed; and the Emperor of China put an end to their last hopes by ordering them away from the Annamese frontiers.

No. 170—Obverse—明 德 元 寶 Minh-duc-nguyen-bao.

Reverse plain.

Iron coin issued by MAC DANG-DUNG.

No. 171—Obverse—明德通寶 Minh-duc-thong-bao.

Reverse. The characters 七分 Phat-phan, indicating the weight of the coin. They are written in the The triem style.

Copper coin issued by Mac Dang-dung.

No. 172—Obverse—大正通寶 Dai-chang-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Copper coin issued by MAC DANG-DINH.

No. 173—Obverse—廣和通寶 Quang-hoa-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Diminutive copper coin issued by MAC PHUOC-HAI.

No. 174—Obverse—Same as before, but with the four characters written in the seal style.

Reverse plain.

Diminutive copper coin issued by Mac Phuoc-hai.

No. 175—Obverse—永定通寶 Vinh-dinh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Diminutive copper coin issued by MAC PHUOC-NGUYEN.

No. 176—Obverse—永定之寶 Vinh-dinh-ti-bao.

Reverse without rim.

Diminutive copper coin issued by Mac Phuoc-nguyen.

The 阮 Nguyen Family.

1562-1776.

Mention has already been made before of how the Lord TRINH, moved by jealousy, confined the two sons of General 阮金 NGUYEN CAM to the territories afterwards known by the name of 廣南 Quang-nam. The elder of the two brothers, known under the name of 阮皇 NGUYEN-HOANG, and under the title of 仙王 Tien-vuong, was considered the chief of the principality. He went to Cochinchina in 1562, establishing himself in the provinces of Quang-nam and 順化 Thuan-hoa, where he passed ten years, occupied in the work of subduing the native chiefs who would not submit to his authority. In 1572 the Lords MAC, who then pretended to be the real sovereigns

of these states, sent against the Nguyen an army of ten thousand men, which was defeated. The Lords Trinh likewise sent some royal troops to fight against the Nguyen, but they also were repulsed by Hoang, whose authority was much strengthened by these victories. Nevertheless, the Lords Nguyen did not consider themselves sufficiently strong to resist openly the royal power of the Le rulers, still maintained with great vigour by the iron hand of the Lords Trinh. In 1593 the chief Hoang went personally to the court of King The-tong, bringing with him a tribute from his provinces, and an army to be employed against the Lords Mac.

In 1622 the NGUYEN declared themselves in open rebellion against the LE Dynasty and the Lords Trinh, and refused to pay any more tribute, or to send any more soldiers. At that time they were able to resist several invasions of their territory by the royal armies.

In 1637 a Dutch settlement, which existed till 1700, was founded on the coast of Quang-nam.

In 1653 the NGUYEN armies invaded Tunquin for the first time, and after defeating the royal troops, occupied the province of Nghe-an, but had to give it up again in 1660, owing to the rivalry existing between the two generals in command. They also enlarged the principality on its Southern and Western frontiers by occupying the whole of Cambodia and annexing it to Cochinchina.

The division of the kingdom was then practically made, and the name of Annam was applied to Tunquin only in the possession of the LE family. Cochinchina formed another kingdom under the name of 農耐 Dong-nai, with its capital at Hué.

Then followed a long period of peace which was employed by the Lord 義王 NGAI-VUONG and his successors in reorganizing the country, exhausted and tried by so many wars. However, the faults to be found in the constitution of any Annamese power were soon revealed in the government of

the Quang-nam Principality. To the first NGUYEN rulers, good and intelligent men, had succeeded others, full of vice and ready to commit any kind of crime. Thus was the way prepared for the great rebellion of the Tay-son, which overthrew all the old institutions of the kingdom. This rebellion is perhaps the most important event in the whole history of Annam.

XIX.

The 西山 Tay-son Rebellion. 1764-1801.

Annam is certainly the country in which there have been the greatest number of rebellions, and the most important one is without doubt that of the *Western Mountaineers*, who rebelled in 1764 in the province of 平定 Binh-dinh, and soon afterwards became the masters of the whole Annamese territory.

There exist two different versions of the origin of this great rebellion. According to the Annamese version, as given by Mr. PETRUS VINH-KY, there lived in the country of Binh-dinh a Tunquinese family of prisoners of war who had formerly inhabited 爻安 Nghe-an, and who were taken down to Cochinchina by the NGUYEN armies during the reign of 神宗 Than-tong. One of the members of this family, called 阮文岳 NGUYEN VAN-NHAC, rose to the position of Bien-lai or *Treasurer* of the Customs station at Van-don. This Nguyen Van-nhac lost heavy sums by gambling, and to pay these amounts he embezzled Government money under his charge. Fearing discovery, he fled to the Tay-son mountains, and there soon collected around him about three thousand criminals, thieves and pirates. He appointed his two brothers 文惠 VAN-HUE and 文錄 VAN-LU lieutenants of this army, whose first operations were to attack and plunder the Customs stations on the frontier and to pillage the rich families in the country. The men of that army took the name of 西山 Tay-son, and the revolt is known by the name of the *Rebellion of the Western Mountaineers*.

The Tay-son rebels successfully resisted the armies sent against them, emboldened by the victories they obtained, until they seized the citadel of Binh-dinh, having entered its walls by a stratagem somewhat similar to that of the famous wooden horse of the siege of Troy. The rebel chief however soon found himself hard pressed on the North by the royal troops of the LE Dynasty, under the command of Trinh-sum, and on the South by those of the Lords NGUYEN. VAN-NHAC thought it prudent to cast in his lot with that of the Lords Trinh, by whom he was soon employed to expel the Nguyen from the country. This end being obtained, he was created 鄭靖王 Trinh-thanh Vuong, in 1775, and appointed by royal authority Governor of Quang-nam. In 1776 the war against the Nguyen was continued and their last King 睿宗 DUỆ-TÔNG and his son were made prisoners and beheaded in Saigon. In 1777 Van-nhac took advantage of the royal armies having returned to Tunquin to proclaim himself king of Cochinchina under the name of 泰德 THAI-DUC.

But at the same time a nephew of King DUỆ-TÔNG, the last representative of the NGUYEN family, raised his standard against the Tay-son rebels, and after many contests in which success and reverses were equally divided, he put an end to the rebellion, and in 1801 occupied the throne of Annam, taking 嘉隆 GIA-LONG as the name of his reign and founding the present Dynasty of the country.

The Chinese version of the Tay-son revolt is that the Lords TRINH, in order to take advantage of every possible way of destroying the power of the NGUYEN, bribed two of their officials, VAN-NHAC and VAN-HUE, and commanded them to revolt and take the capital Hué, and thus annihilate the race of their rulers. It is easy to perceive that this version is not a correct one, as it was Lord Trinh himself who took Hué and subsequently received the submission of the Tay-son.

We have seen that in 1777 VAN-NHAC proclaimed himself king and appointed his brother HUE commander-in-chief.

Rivalry soon broke out between the two brothers, and a fight ensued between their two armies, but a common danger brought them together again. In order to prevent such differences for the future, they divided, in 1785, the territories already conquered into three kingdoms, each kingdom to be governed by one of the brothers. The following table will give an exact idea of this division.

First brother.

NAME.	ACCESSION.	NAME OF REIGN.	YEAR OF ADOPTION OF NAME OF REIGN.
阮文岳 Nguyen Van-nhac	1764	泰德 Thai-duc	1777

Second brother.

阮文惠 Nguyen Van-hue	1785	光中 Quang-trung ...	1786
阮文纘 Nguyen Van-toan	1791	景盛 Canh-thanh ...	1791
		寶興 Bao-hung ...	1800

Third brother.

阮文錄 Nguyen Van-lu	1785	東定 Dong-dinh ...	1785
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VAN-NHAC took the title of 大皇帝 Dai-hoang-de or Emperor, and occupied the territories of the 廣安 Quang-nam to the South of 平定 Binh-dinh, his capital being at the port of Quinhon. He died in 1792 leaving as successor his son 思朝 Tu-trieu, who was immediately deposed and some time afterwards murdered by his uncle Hue.

VAN-HUE occupied the whole of Tunquin and a part of Cochinchina, having his capital at first in Hué and afterwards in 中都 Trung-do, in the province of 交安 Nghe-an. In December of 1789 he received his investiture and seal from

the Emperor of China, and being thus recognized as king of Annam, he sent to Peking the amount of two tributes. He died in 1791, and in the following year his son and successor 文績 VAN-TOAN incorporated with his kingdom the territories belonging to the son of VAN-NHAC.

VAN-LU was a bonze and his reign but a short one. Proclaimed king of 平順 Binh-thuan and lower Cochinchina in 1785, he established his capital at Saigon, whence he was soon driven away by the army of GIA-LONG, which in 1788 conquered the whole of LU's kingdom.

The above notices will be sufficient to give an idea of the importance of the Tay-son rebellion. These rebels occupied in fact the whole of Annam, and the Chinese Emperor K'IENTUNG, after having invaded that country and failed to restore the throne of the last LE Prince, recognized Van-hue as king, in 1789, and received him in his summer palace at Jehol.

The story of the contest between the armies of the Tay-son and those of GIA-LONG is a long one, and of no special interest, as it merely consists of a long list of battles in the Annamese style, in which appears as victor the very same chief who the day before had been defeated. Gia-long had the good fortune of being assisted by the Bishop of Adran who caused the French Government to interfere for the first time with the affairs of Annam. In 1801 Quinhon, the last stronghold of the rebels, fell into his hands, and thus ended the most formidable rebellion that has ever devastated Annam.

No. 177.—Obverse.—泰德通寶 Thai-duc-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Copper.

No. 178.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse. The sun and the moon above and below the square hole. Copper.

No. 179.—Obverse.—Same as No. 177.

Reverse. The sun and the moon on the right and left of the hole. Copper.

No. 180.—Obverse.—Same as No. 177.

Reverse. The sun above, and the sun and moon together below the hole. Copper.

No. 181.—Obverse.—Same as No. 177.

Reverse. The moon on the left of the hole. Copper.

No. 182.—Obverse.—Same as No. 177.

Reverse. The moon below the hole. Copper.

No. 183.—Obverse.—Same as No. 177.

Reverse. Four crescents round the hole. Zinc.

No. 184.—Obverse.—Same as No. 177.

Reverse. The characters 七分 That-phan, indicating the weight of the cash. Copper.

All the above coins were issued by the rebel chief 阮文岳 NGUYEN VAN-NHAC (1777-1792). Except the one made of zinc, they are all of red copper imported into Annam from Japan.

No. 185.—Obverse.—光中通寶 Quang-trung-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Two kinds of metal were employed in the manufacture of this cash, viz: Copper and tin.

No. 186.—Same as before, but with the character Bao written as follow: 寶.

No. 187.—Same as No. 185, but without any rim on the reverse.

No. 188.—Obverse.—光中大寶 Quang-trung-dai-bao.

Reverse plain. Red copper.

No. 189.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. A dot below the hole. Copper.

No. 190.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. A straight line above the hole. Red copper.

No. 191.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. A line below the hole.

No. 192.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. A line on the left of the hole.

No. 193.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. Four crescents round the hole. Tin mixed with a small quantity of copper.

No. 194.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. Four crescents round the rim. Same metal as above.

No. 195.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. Two crescents above and below the hole. Same metal as above.

No. 196.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185, but with a line round the rim.

Reverse.—A line round the rim, similar to the one on the obverse. Tin. This coin is a little smaller than the others.

No. 197.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. The character 工 *Cung*, for the Board of Public Works, below the hole. Tin.

No. 198.—Same as before, but with the character 工 *Cung* of the reverse above the hole. Copper.

No. 199.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. The character 一 *Nhat*, *one*, denoting the value of the cash, above the hole, and below the character 正 *Chinh*, the meaning of which has already been explained. Copper.

No. 200.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse. The characters 山南 *Son-nam*, written in the 隸 *Le* style. They denote the province in which the coin was made. Red copper.

No. 201.—Obverse.—Same as No. 185.

Reverse.—Same inscription as on the obverse, but with the characters upside down.

The above coins, from No. 185 to 201, were issued by the rebel chief 阮文惠 *Nguyen Van-hue* (1786-1791).

No. 202.—Obverse.—景盛通寶 Canh-tanh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Tin.

No. 203.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse without rim. Copper.

No. 204.—Obverse.—Same as No. 202.

Reverse. A straight line below the hole. Copper.

No. 205.—Obverse.—Same as No. 202.

Reverse with four crescents round the hole. Tin mixed with copper.

No. 206.—Obverse.—Same as No. 202, with a line round the rim.

Reverse. A line round the rim. Tin.

No. 207.—Obverse.—Same as No. 202.

Reverse. The inscription 光中通寶 Quang-trung-thong-bao, referring to the rebel Quang-trung. The characters are upside down. Tin.

No. 208.—Obverse.—Same as No. 202.

Reverse. Same inscription as on the obverse, with the characters upside down. Tin.

No. 209.—Obverse.—Same as No. 202, but with plain rim.

Reverse. Two fish and two flowers. On the rim the same design as on the obverse. Yellow copper.

No. 210.—Obverse.—Same as No. 209, the design on the rim varying a little.

Reverse. A dragon and a fish. Yellow copper.

The coins numbered 202 to 210 were issued by the rebel 阮文纘 NGUYEN VAN-TOAN (1791-1800). Nos. 209 and 210 were cast for the purpose of being given away as medals.

No. 211.—Obverse.—寶興通寶 Bao-hung-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Copper.

In 1800 Van-toan changed the name of his reign to Bao-hung and issued this coin, of which a very small quantity only was cast, as this rebel soon disappeared from Annam.

XX.

Chinese intervention in Tunquin, and
the 阮 Nguyen Dynasty.

At the request of the wife and son of King CHIEU-TONG, who was hiding himself in the Cao-bang mountains, the Emperor K'ÏEN-LUNG ordered his armies to enter Annam and to re-establish the former state of affairs, that is to say, to restore to the LE Dynasty the entire territory of Tunquin of which they had been deprived by the Tay-son rebels.

The Viceroy of the Liang Kuang provinces, 孫士毅 SUN CHE-I, was appointed commander-in-chief of the Chinese armies, and assisted by General 許世亨 SHIU CHE-HENG, he entered Annam from Kuang-si in November 1788 at the head of ten thousand Cantonese soldiers. Another Chinese army commanded by General 烏大經 HU TA-KING invaded Annam from Yunnan. They were joined by the irregular Annamese troops who had remained faithful to the fallen dynasty, and after several easy victories following each other in rapid succession, the Chinese commander-in-chief entered Ha-noi in December of the same year and re-instated King CHIEU-TONG on the throne.

A month afterwards, however, the rebel chief HUE entered Ha-noi by stratagem, and having come upon the Chinese unawares, completely routed them and forced the Viceroy and the Annamese king to re-cross the frontier into China.

The court of Peking degraded the Viceroy SUN and gave the supreme command of the army to 富綱安 FU KANG-NGAN, Viceroy of the 雲貴 Yun-Kwei (Yunnan and Kwei-chao). The new commander-in-chief re-entered Annam without delay, concluded a truce with HUE, and wrote a long report to the

Emperor in support of the rebellion. Thereupon K'ÏEN-LUNG issued the following edict, published in the 大清會典 Ta Tsing Vui-tien in 1789.

“In consequence of a revolution King 黎昭統 LE CHIEU-TONG lost his royal seal and became a fugitive. The Annamese then recognized as head of the Government 阮光平 NGUYEN QUANG-BINH (光中 QUANG-TRUNG, or HUE) who now submits to our authority and craves permission to come to Peking to gaze upon our august Majesty. The provincial judge of Kuang-si, 成林 TOH'ENG-LIN, is hereby commanded to invest him with royal power in our name, and to bestow upon him a gilt silver seal in the shape of a camel.”

After the promulgation of this edict the Chinese armies were ordered to retire from Annam, and thus closed the war.

No. 212.—Obverse.—乾隆通寶 Can-long-thong-bao.

Reverse. 安南 An-nam.

White Copper. Cast in Yunnan for the payment of the Chinese troops.

The 阮 Nguyen Dynasty.

From 1776 to the present time.

King 嘉隆 GIA-LONG was the nephew of King DUE-TONG, the last sovereign of Cochinchina, and being gifted with an active mind and with great powers of organization, he determined to reconquer the territory which had been taken possession of by the Tay-son rebels.

His luck was at first a very changeable one, for at one time he reigned in the South of Cochinchina with absolute power, and at another he found himself alone, persecuted, without an army, and forced to take refuge in Siam. At last success favoured him. With the help of the French, secured through the direct intervention of the Bishop of Adran, and assisted by the Siamese and Cambodian armies, he not only re-occupied the former territory of the Quang-nam Principal-

ity belonging to his family, but also took possession of the whole of Tunquin. Out of these conquests he formed the kingdom of Annam, and in 1801 proclaimed himself king, thus founding the NGUYEN Dynasty, which is still in power at the present day.

Since then four kings have ascended the throne. The history of their reign contains but little worthy of note; moreover, it is still of too recent a date to be dealt with impartially. These four kings are principally remarkable for their hatred towards foreigners and for their persecution of the Christians. It is only through the pressure of European armies that they have consented to open several ports to foreign trade, and at this very moment the country seems to be passing through a crisis, menaced as it is by the intervention of the French in Tunquin, who may possibly annex it in the same way as they annexed Lower Cochin-China twenty-five years ago.

No. 213.—Obverse.—嘉隆通寶 Gia-long-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

Three kinds of cash, made of copper, lead, or zinc.

No. 214.—Same as before, but of larger size. Copper mixed with tin.

No. 215.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse without rim. Some are made of white copper, others of dark red copper.

No. 216.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. A dot above the hole.

No. 217.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. A dot on the right of the hole.

No. 218.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. A dot on the left of the hole.

No. 219.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. Two crescents above and below the hole.

No. 220.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. Two crescents on the right and left of the hole.

No. 221.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. A dot and a crescent on the right of the hole.

No. 222.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse with a double rim.

All the above coins, from No. 216 to 222, are made of copper mixed with tin.

No. 223.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. The characters 六分 *Luc-phan*, or *six phan*, indicating the weight of the cash.

No. 224.—Obverse.—Same as No. 213.

Reverse. The characters 七分 *That-phan*, meaning the weight of the cash. There exist three different cash of this description, made of copper, lead and zinc respectively.

No. 225.—On the obverse and reverse the inscription 嘉隆通寶 *Gia-long-thong-bao*.

No. 226.—Same as before, but having the inscription on the reverse upside down.

All the above cash, from No. 213 to 226, were issued by King GIA-LONG (1801-1820). They were only made in Hué and Ha-noi.

No. 227.—Obverse.—明命通寶 *Minh-mang-thong-bao*.

Reverse plain. White copper.

No. 228.—Same as before, but of smaller size. Copper and lead.

The two above coins were issued by King MINH-MANG (1820-1838). The custom of casting medals with inscriptions on the reverse, such as 金玉其相 追琢其章 or 風調雨順 國泰民安 was followed by this king; but they never went into circulation.

No. 229.—Obverse.—紹治通寶 *Thieu-tri-thong-bao*.

Reverse plain. White copper.

No. 230.—Same as before, but of smaller size. Copper, zinc, and lead.

The above coins were issued by King THIEU-TRI (1838-1845).

The coins of the reigning king are as follows:—

No. 231.—Obverse.—嗣德通寶 Tu-duc-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Copper mixed with tin.

No. 232.—Same as before but of smaller size. Two kinds, made of copper or lead.

No. 233.—Obverse.—Same as No. 231.

Reverse. Four crescents round the hole. Zinc.

No. 234.—Obverse.—Same as No. 231.

Reverse. The characters 六分 Luc-phan, indicating the weight of the coin. Copper mixed with tin.

No. 235.—Obverse.—Same as No. 231.

Reverse. The characters 河內 Ha-noi, where the cash was cast. Lead.

No. 236.—Obverse.—嗣德寶鈔 Tu-duc-bao-sau.

Reverse. The characters 準文六十 Chun-van-luc-tap, or *equal to sixty cash*. These coins were first issued in 1877 from Ha-noi, and the value of one *tien* was given to them; but on account of their inferior intrinsic value the people disliked them, and their circulation was in consequence very limited.

No. 237.—Same as before, but of smaller size.

No. 238.—Same as before, but still smaller and thinner.

No. 239.—Obverse.—Same as No. 236.

Reverse. The characters 準文五十 Chun-van-nghu-tap, or *equal to fifty cash*. In order to bring these coins into general circulation the Annamese Government reduced the value of the *rien* to fifty cash, in 1878, and allowed them to be used for the payment of taxes.

XXI.

The Nguy-khoi Rebellion. (1831-1834). The Nung Rebellion. (1832-1835.)—Doubtful Coins. (1600 to date.)

The Nguy-khoi Rebellion.

KHOI was an officer of high rank in the employ of the Government in Lower Cochinchina. He was accused of holding ambitious views and of wishing to assert his independence, and therefore was called to the court of Hué to give an account of his actions. Afraid to appear, he raised the standard of rebellion in the province of Saigon, and very soon became master of the Mytho, Bien-hoa, Baria and Mo-xui districts.

King 明命 MINH-MANG became seriously alarmed at the proportions of this rebellion, and sent troops by land and sea to quell it. The royal army slowly regained possession of the disturbed districts, with the exception of Saigon, which became the centre of the insurrectionary movement, the inhabitants offering serious resistance. The town was besieged, and had it not been for the treachery of one of the rebel chiefs who opened the gates of the citadel, the royal troops would have been kept in check for a considerable time.

KHOI was made a prisoner, taken to Hué, and condemned to death by being slowly cut to pieces. About the same time nearly two thousand of his followers were put to the sword at Saigon and were buried in the place known to this day as the *Field of Graves*.

No. 240.—Obverse.—治元通寶 Tri-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse. A crescent and a dot on the right and left of the hole. Lead.

Coin issued by Khoi (1831-1834).

The Nung Rebellion.

NUNG VAN-VAN was the feudal chief of the Bao-lac district, who, availing himself of the insurrection in Tonquin of a descendant of the 黎 Le Dynasty, followed his example by revolting in 1832, in the provinces of 宣光 Tuyen-quang, 高平 Cao-bang, 諒山 Lang-son, and 太原 Thai-nguyen. His fortunes

were checkered, and although he twice gained possession of the city of Cao-bang, on each occasion he had soon to retire before the royal troops sent against him.

For three years he kept the troops at bay in the mountains to which he had fled, but having suffered severe defeat at Bao-lac, he found himself compelled to seek refuge in China. On his arrival he was persecuted by the mandarins to whom the Annamese had applied for his extradition, and fearing to be caught, he re-entered Annam and tried to hide himself in the An-quang-xa woods. He was discovered, however, by the Annamese, who, fearing that he might again escape, surrounded the woods and set fire to them. On the following day the charred body of NUNG VAN-VAN was found near some rocks.

No. 241.—Obverse.—元隆通寶 Nguyen-long-thong-bao. The character 元 Nguyen written in the running hand style.

Reverse plain. White copper.

No. 242.—Obverse.—Same as before, but with the four characters written in plain style.

Reverse plain.

No. 243.—Obverse.—Same as No. 241.

Reverse with a double rim.

No. 244.—Obverse.—Same as No. 241.

Reverse. The character 昌 Xuong, the meaning of which is uncertain.

Doubtful Coins.

1600 to date.

Having completed the classification of Annamese coins, there still remain a number of cash bearing the names of Princes, of rebel chiefs, or of various mints. Their Annamese origin is well established, but owing to the want of precise information regarding the history of the country, it has been

found impossible to place them under separate and distinct headings. It has therefore been considered best to class them as *doubtful* until the researches of others shall have supplied the means of determining the respective periods to which they belong.

Among them there are doubtless many from the Quang-nam Principality, the rulers of which were kings *de facto* and issued coins at various times. But in making up the chronological tables of the different Annamese dynasties, the name used by these rulers in their own territory could not be traced, and it has therefore been found impossible to classify the coins issued by them.

The classification of other doubtful coins cast by certain rebels presents still greater difficulties owing to the shortness of time during which some of those chiefs were in arms, and to the fact that the names under which they fought, or the titles they assumed when in revolt, have not as a rule been recorded in Annamese books.

The following is a list of these coins :—

No. 245.—Obverse —紹聖元寶 Thieu-thanh-nguyen-bao.

Reverse. The character 正 Chanh, the meaning of which has already been explained. Copper mixed with tin.

No. 246.—Obverse.—寧民通寶 Ninh-thi-thong-bao.

The character 寶 Bao, written in an abbreviated form.

Reverse. Without rim.

Heavy coin made of white copper.

No. 247.—Obverse.—明定宋寶 Minh-dinh-tong-bao.

The characters Tong-bao written in the seal style.

Reverse plain.

No. 248.—Obverse.—景元通寶 Canh-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 249.—Obverse.—Same as before, but written in seal characters.

Reverse. Without rim.

No. 250.—Obverse.—聖 宋 元 寶 Thanh-tong-nguyen-bao.

Reverse plain. Red and white copper.

No. 251.—Obverse.—乾 元 通 寶 Can-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse. Without rim.

Red Copper. Seems to have been cast in Upper Tunquin.

No. 252.—Obverse.—福 平 元 寶 Phuoc-binh-nguyen-bao.

Written in seal characters.

Reverse plain. Copper mixed with tin.

No. 253.—Obverse.—邵 杆 通 寶 Tieu-qui-thong-bao.

Written in running hand and seal characters.

Reverse plain. Yellow copper.

No. 254.—Obverse.—祥 元 通 寶 Thuong-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse. Without rim. White copper.

No. 255.—Same as before, but of smaller size. These coins are very thin and of three or four different sizes.

No. 256.—Obverse.—紹 符 元 寶 Thieu-phu-nguyen-bao.

Written in seal characters.

Reverse plain. Red copper.

No. 257.—Obverse.—元 符 通 寶 Nguyen-phu-thong-bao.
Written in seal characters.

Reverse. Without rim. White copper.

No. 258.—Obverse.—大 工 聖 寶 Dai-cung-thanh-bao.

Reverse plain. Red copper.

No. 259.—Obverse.—開 建 通 寶 Khai-kien-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Red copper.

No. 260.—Obverse.—崇 明 通 寶 Sung-minh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 261.—Obverse.—大 和 通 寶 Dai-hoa-thong-bao.

Reverse. Without rim.

No. 262.—Obverse.—景 底 通 寶 Canh-ti-thong-bao.

Reverse. Without rim.

No. 263.—Obverse.—天 元 通 寶 Thien-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 264.—Same as before, but with the character 元 Nguyen of the obverse written in the seal style.

No. 265.—Obverse.—元 治 通 寶 Nguyen-tri-thong-bao. The characters *tri* and *bao* written in the seal style.

No. 266.—Obverse.—皇 熙 宋 寶 Hoang-hi-tong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 267.—Obverse.—開 聖 元 寶 Khai-thanh-nguyen-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 268.—Obverse.—紹 聖 通 寶 Thieu-thanh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 269.—Obverse.—Same as before, but with the character 平 binh instead of 通 thong.

Reverse without rim.

No. 270.—Obverse.—紹 宋 元 寶 Thieu-tong-nguyen-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 271.—Obverse.—紹 元 通 寶 Thieu-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 272.—Obverse.—祥 宋 元 寶 Thuong-tong-nguyen-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 273.—Obverse.—祥 聖 通 寶 Thuong-thanh-thong-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 274.—Obverse.—熙 宋 元 寶 Hi-tong-nguyen-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 275.—Obverse.—應 感 元 寶 Ung-cam-nguyen-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 276.—Obverse.—統 符 元 寶 Thong-phu-nguyen-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 277.—Obverse.—熙 紹 元 寶 Hi-thanh-nguyen-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 278.—Obverse.—正 元 通 寶 Chanh-nguyen-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Copper mixed with tin.

No. 279.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse without rim.

No. 280.—Obverse.—Same as No. 278.

Reverse. A dot above the hole.

No. 281.—Obverse.—Same as No. 278.

Reverse. A crescent on the left of the hole.

No. 282.—Obverse.—Same as No. 278.

Reverse. A crescent on the right of the hole.

No. 283.—Obverse.—天德元寶 Thien-duc-nguyen-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 284.—Obverse.—皇恩通寶 Hoang-ban-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 285.—Obverse.—天明通寶 Thien-minh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain. Lead. Coin made in the Quang-nam province.

No. 286.—Obverse.—太聖通寶 Thai-thanh-thong-bao.

Reverse without rim.

No. 287.—Obverse.—大聖通寶 Dai-thanh-thong-bao.

Reverse plain.

No. 288.—Obverse.—治平通寶 Tri-binh-thong-bao.

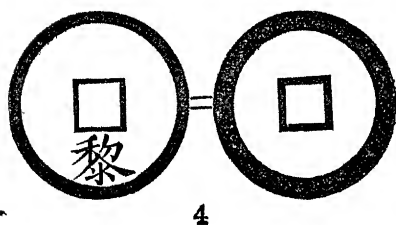
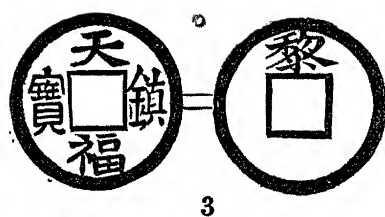
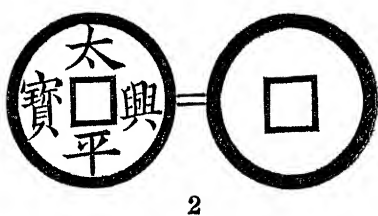
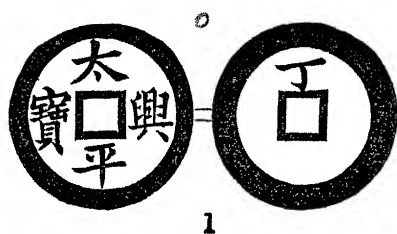
Reverse. A crescent on the left of the hole.

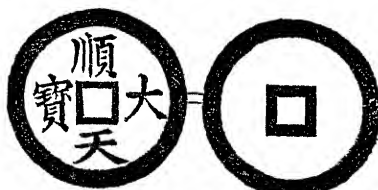
No. 289.—Obverse.—政和通寶 Chanh-hoa-thong-bao.

Reverse. A crescent on the right of the hole.

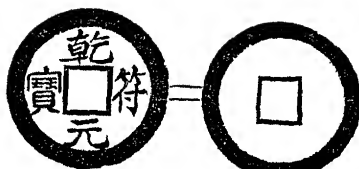
No. 290.—Obverse.—Same as before.

Reverse. A crescent and dot on each side of the hole.

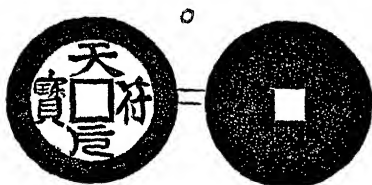




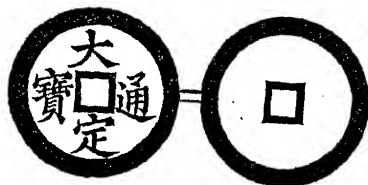
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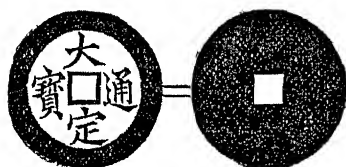
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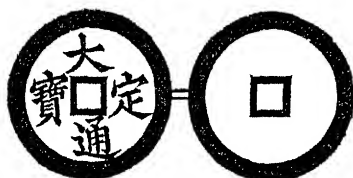
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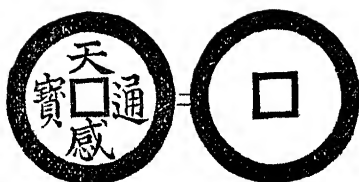
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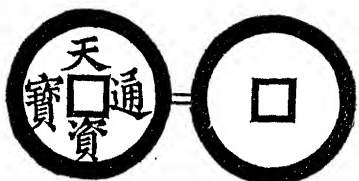
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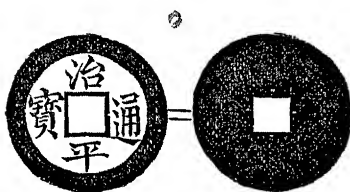
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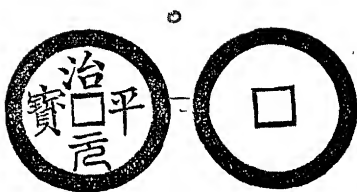
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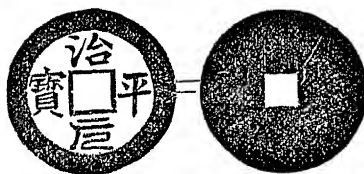
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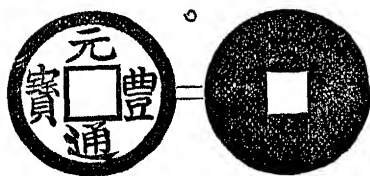
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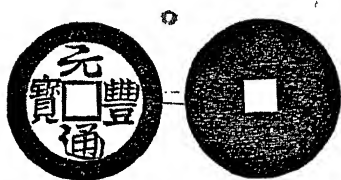
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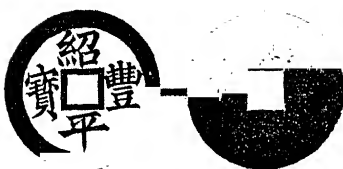
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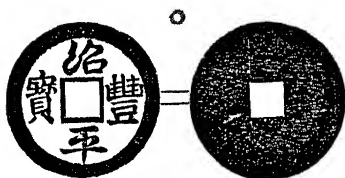
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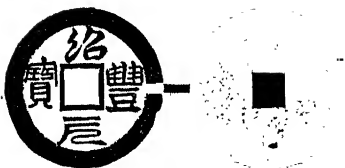
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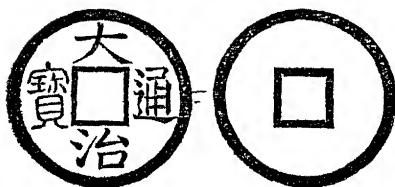
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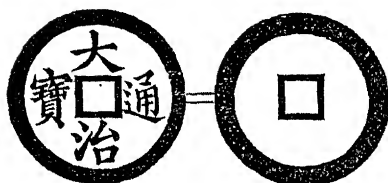
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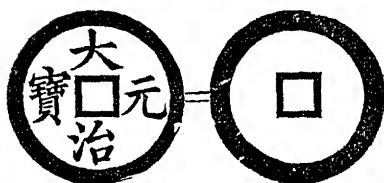
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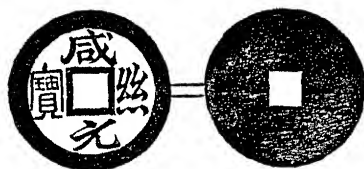
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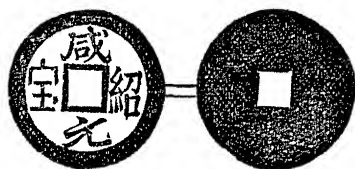
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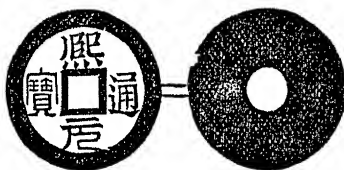
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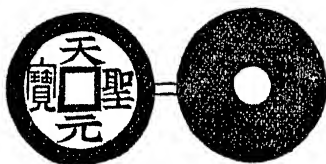
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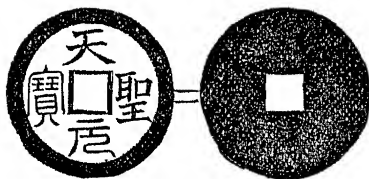
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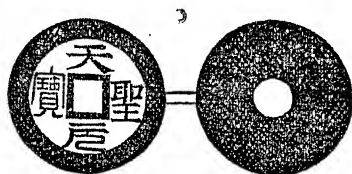
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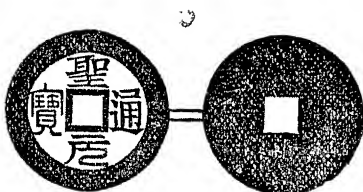
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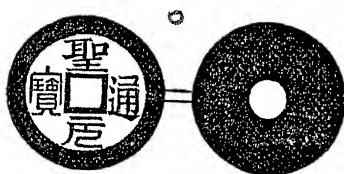
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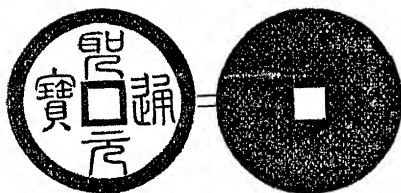
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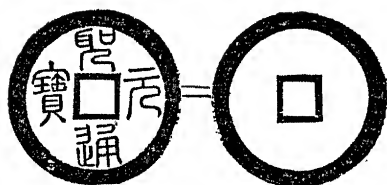
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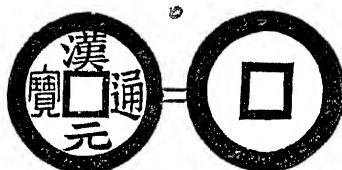
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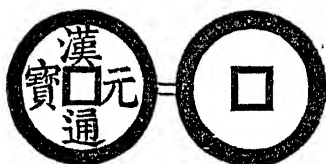
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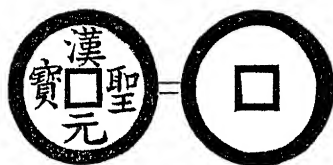
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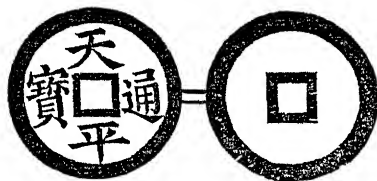
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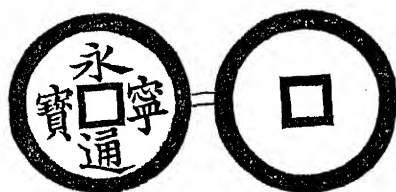
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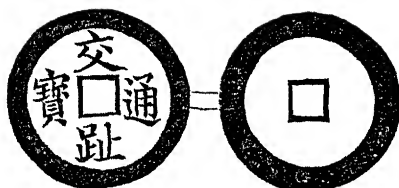
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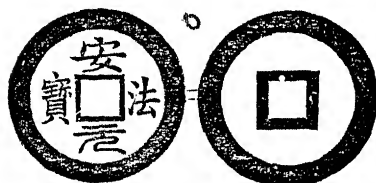
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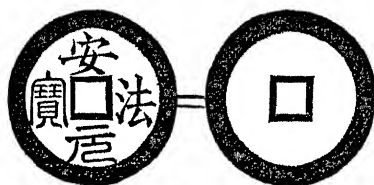
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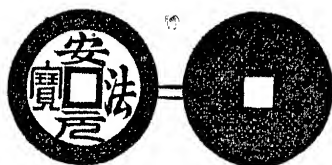
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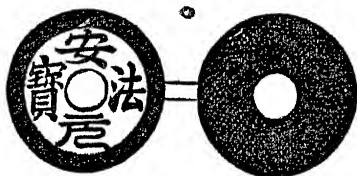
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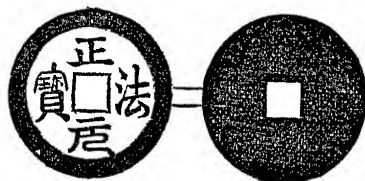
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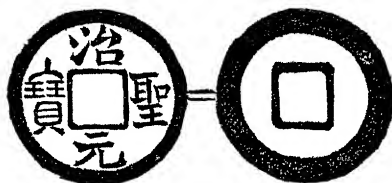
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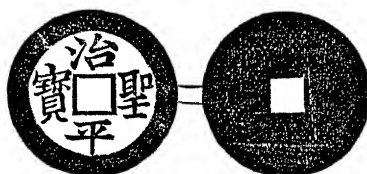
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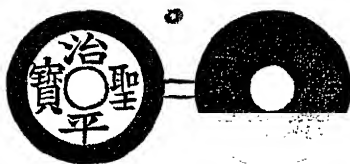
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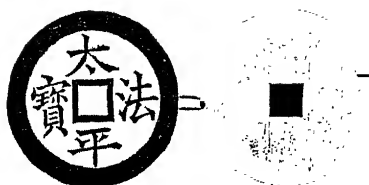
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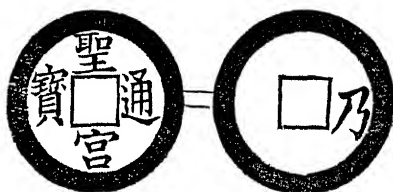
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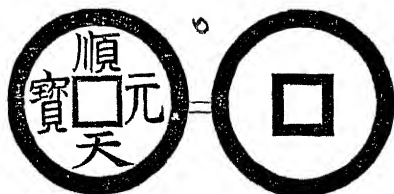
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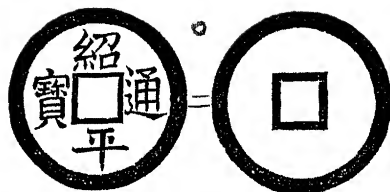
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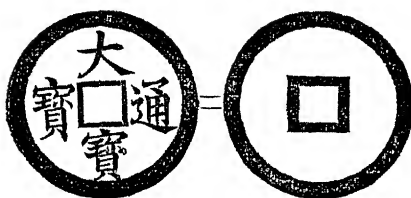
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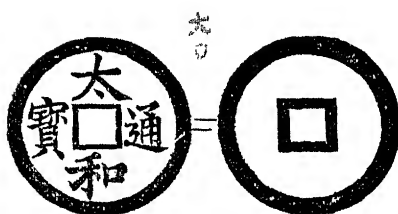
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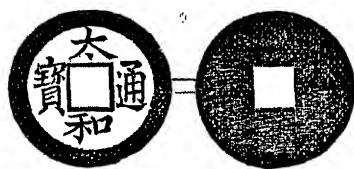
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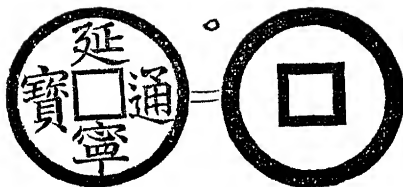
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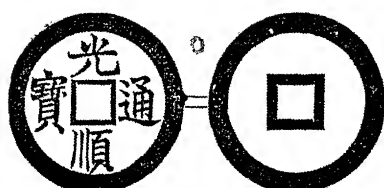
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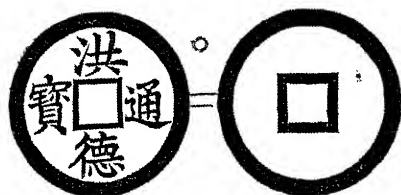
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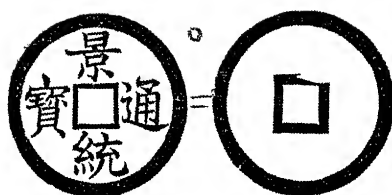
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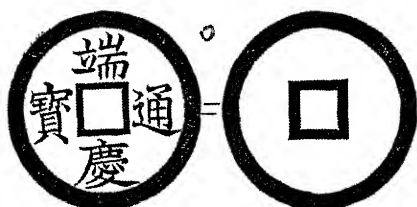
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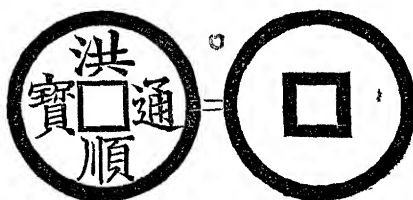
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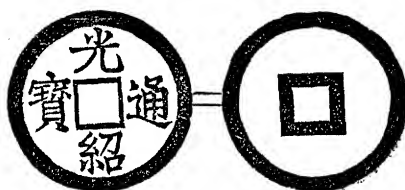
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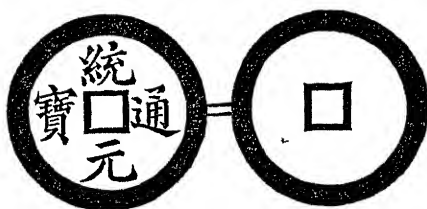
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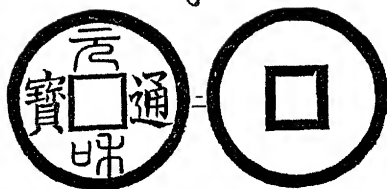
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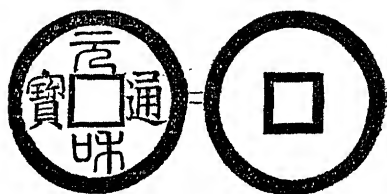
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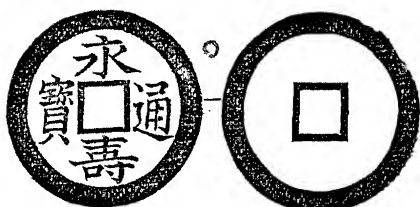
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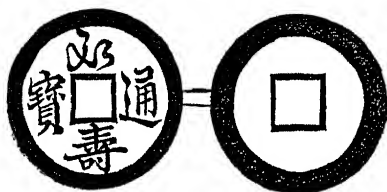
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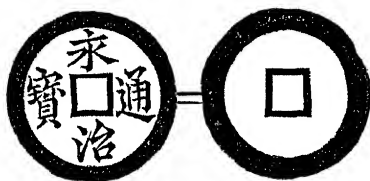
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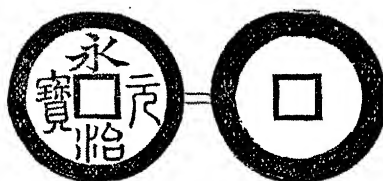
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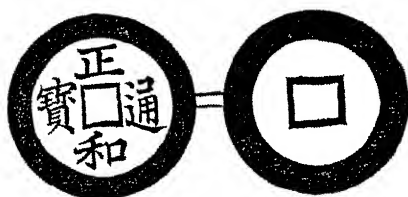
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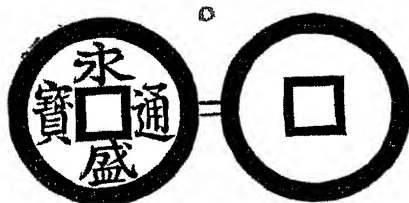
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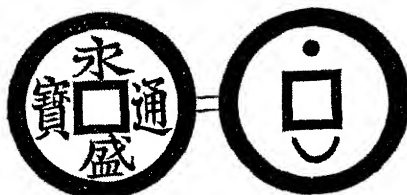
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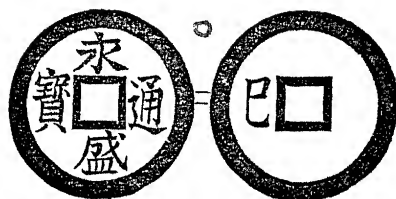
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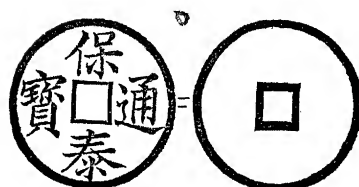
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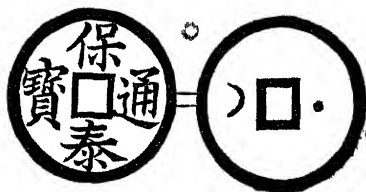
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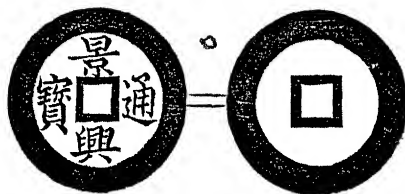
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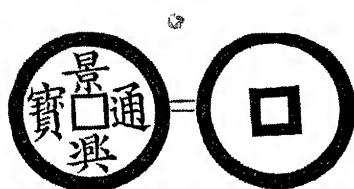
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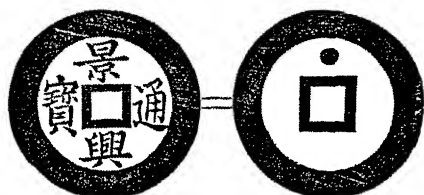
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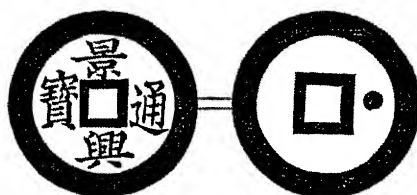
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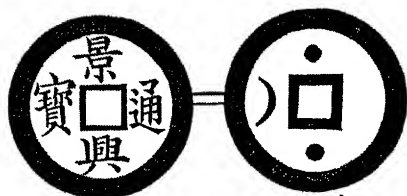
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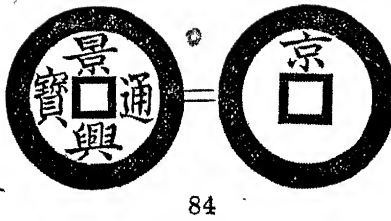
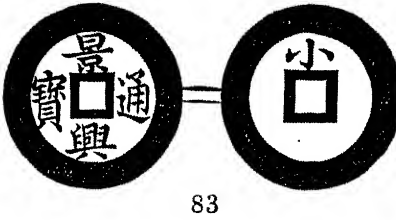
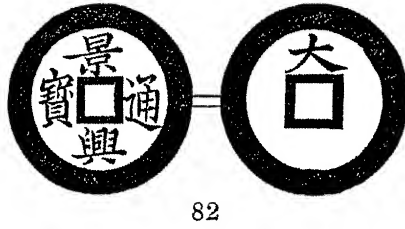
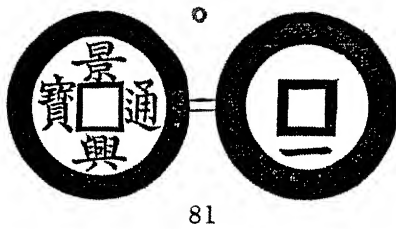
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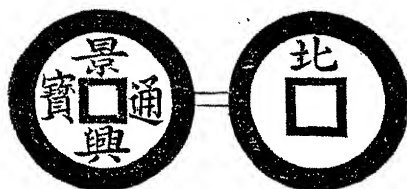


79

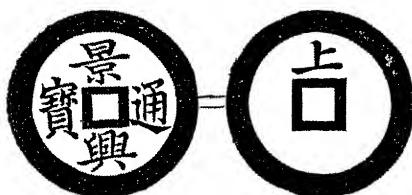


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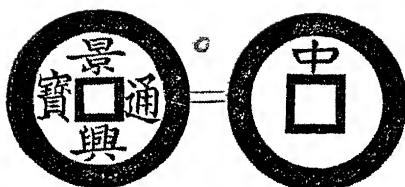




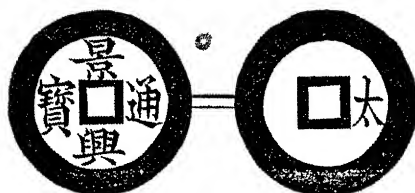
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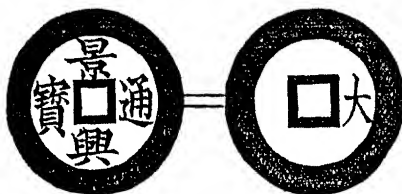
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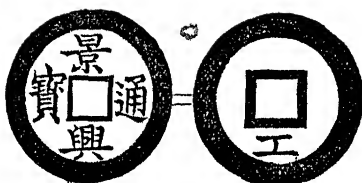
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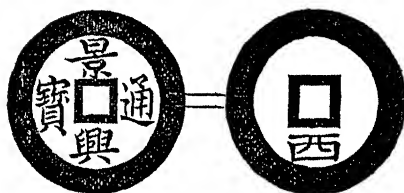
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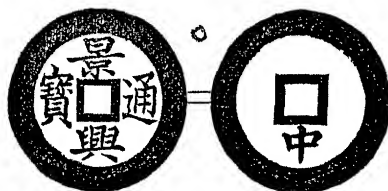
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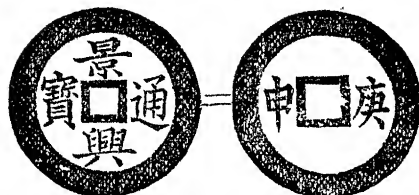
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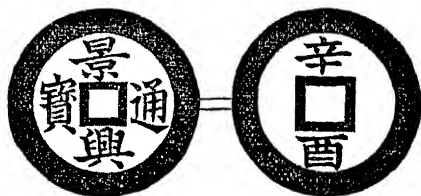
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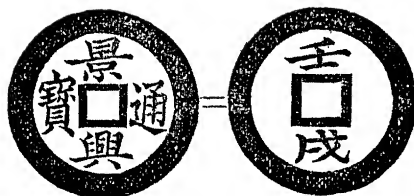
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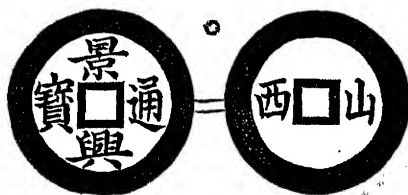
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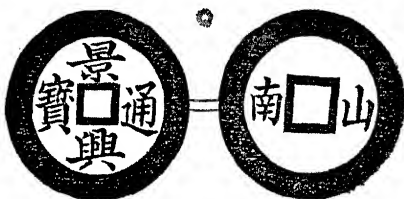
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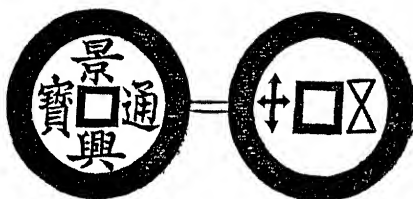
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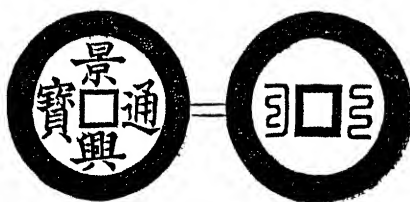
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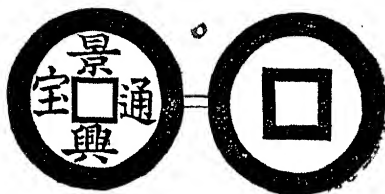
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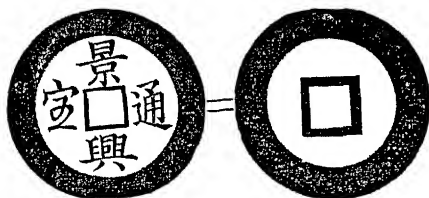
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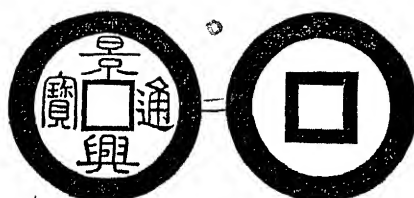
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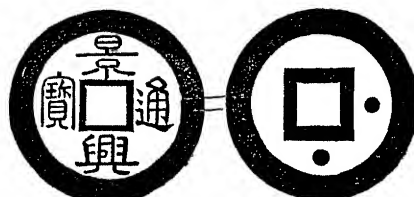
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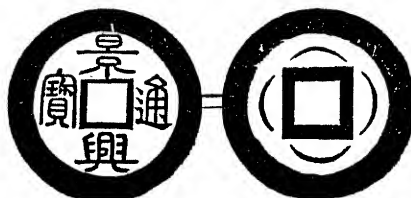
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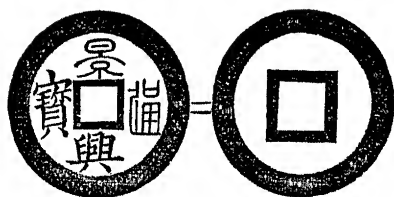
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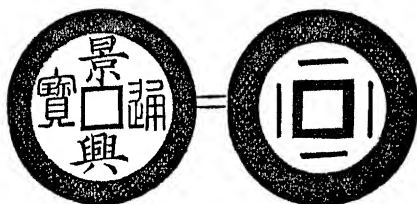
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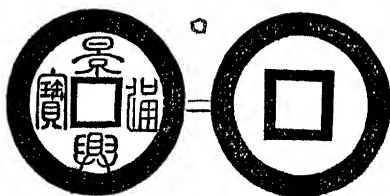
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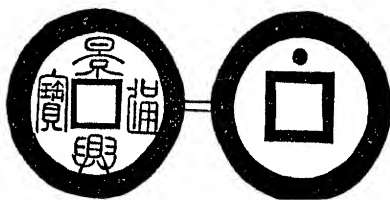
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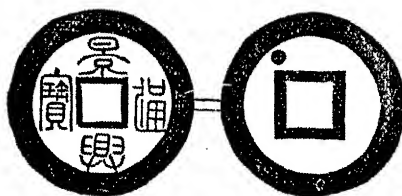
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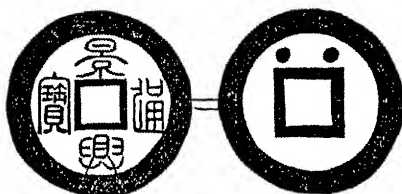
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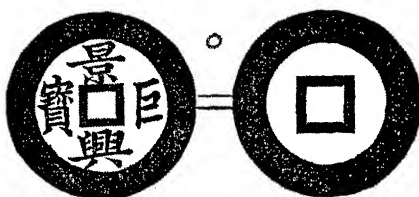
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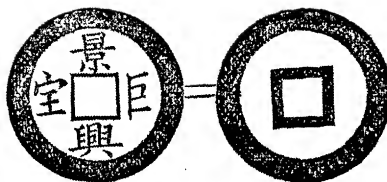
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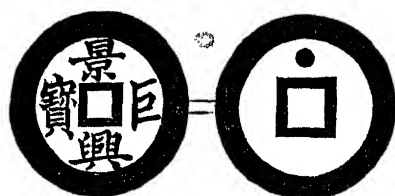
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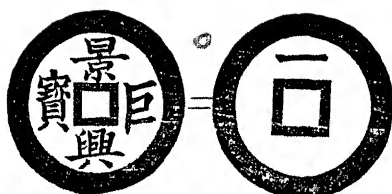
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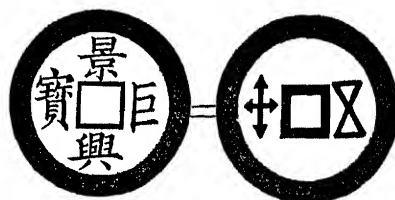
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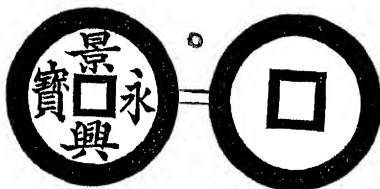
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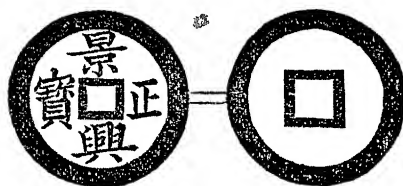
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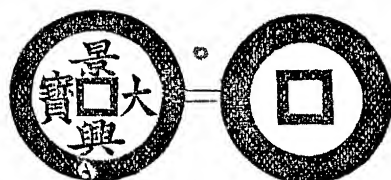
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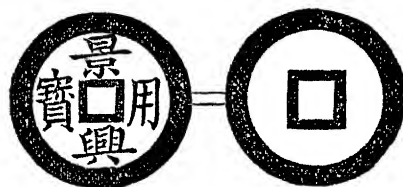
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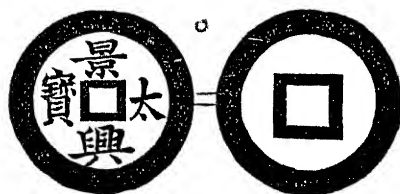
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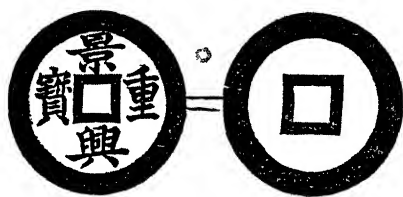
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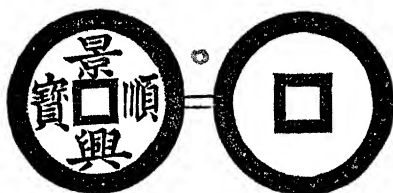
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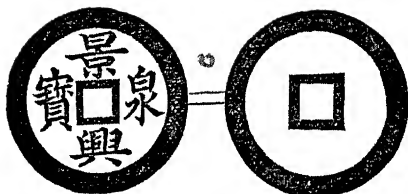
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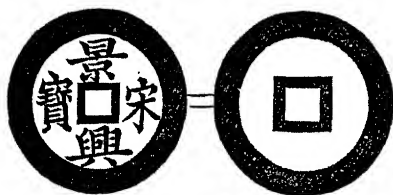
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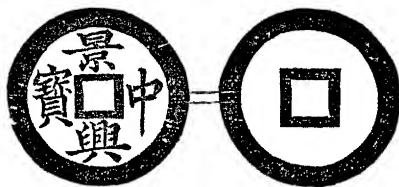
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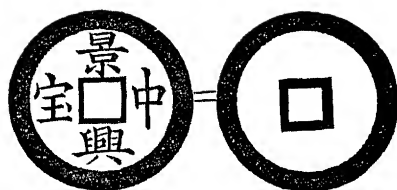
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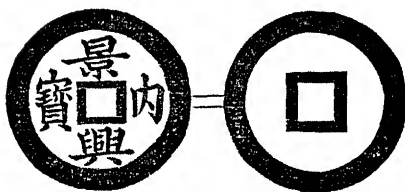
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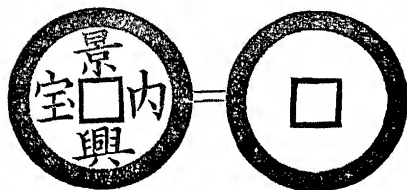
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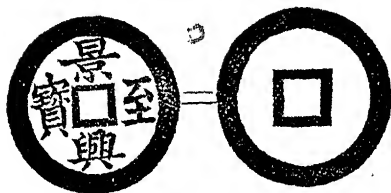
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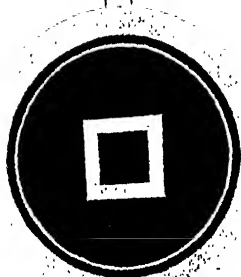
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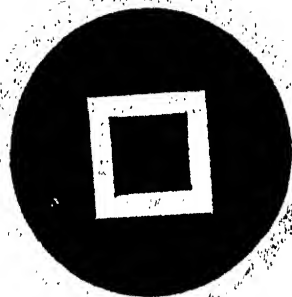
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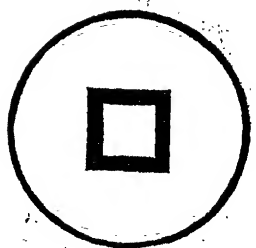
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130



131



132



133



134

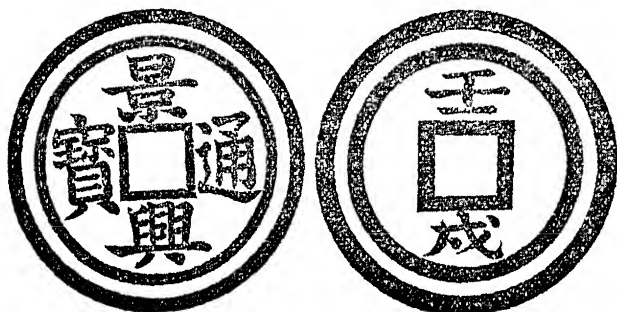


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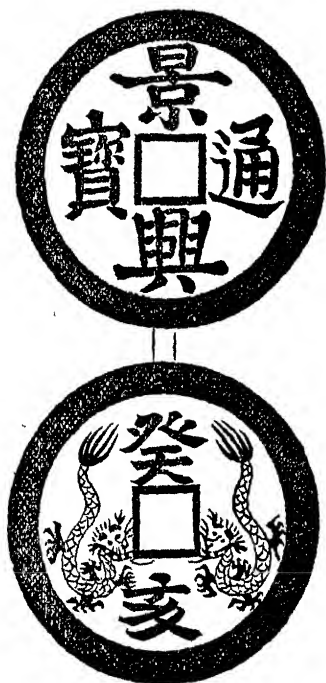


136

137



138



139



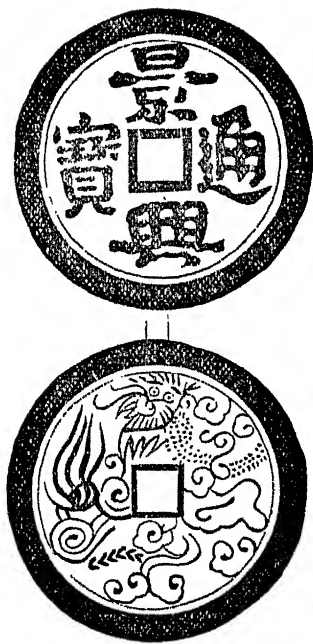
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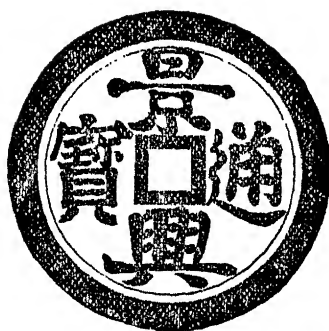
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142



143



144

145



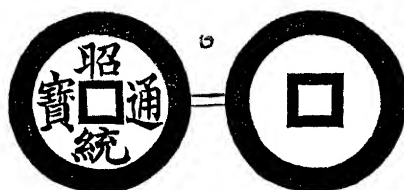
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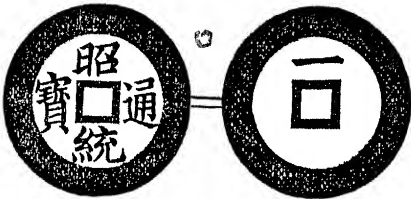
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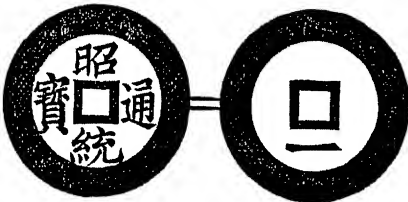
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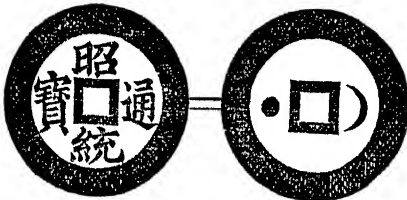
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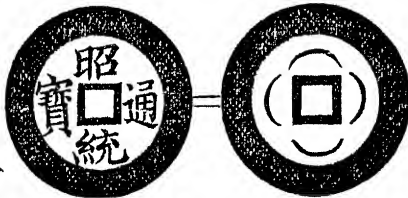
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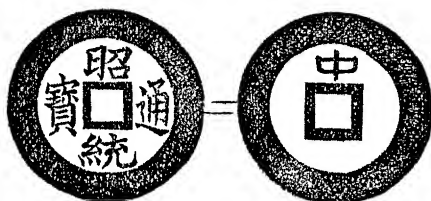
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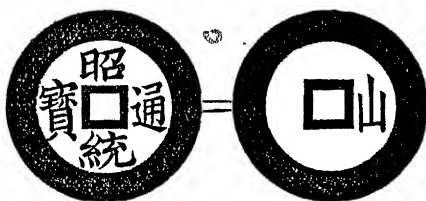
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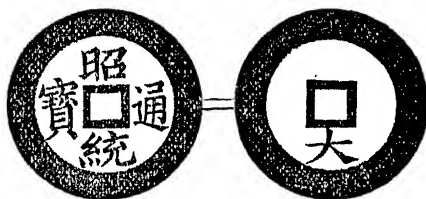
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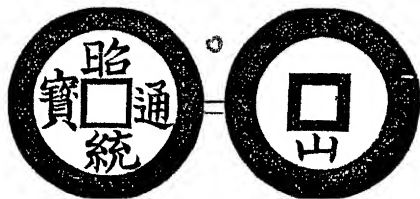
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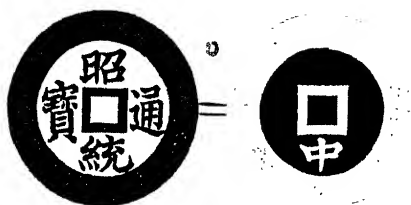
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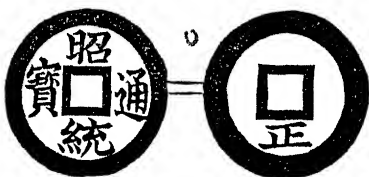
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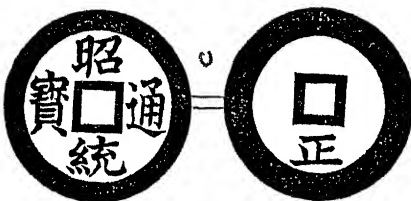
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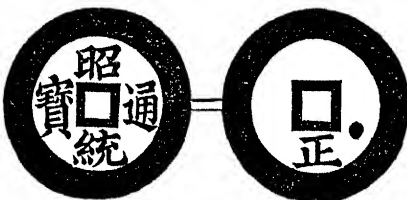
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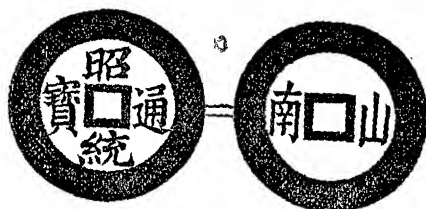
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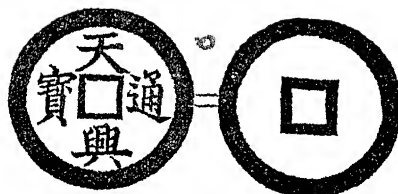
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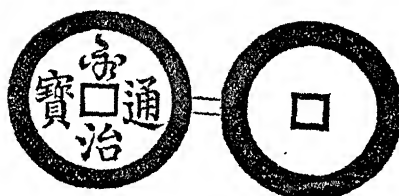
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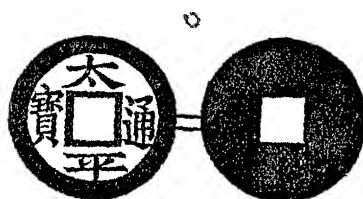
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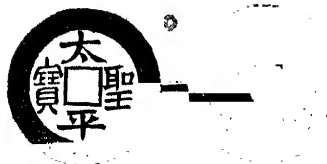
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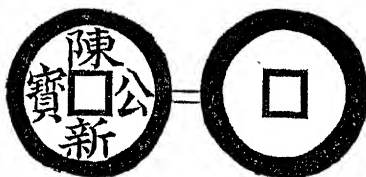
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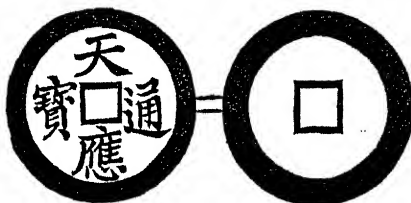
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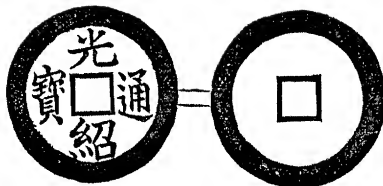
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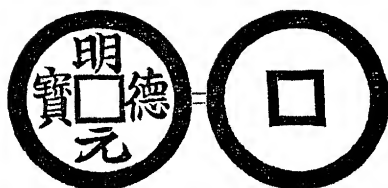
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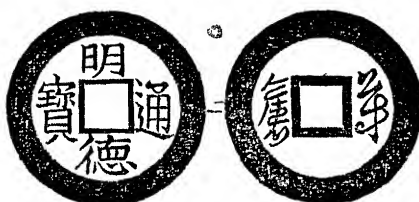
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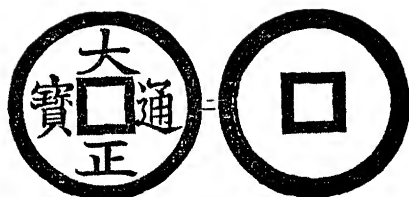
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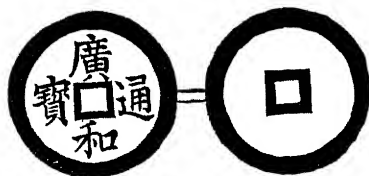
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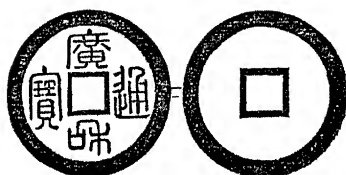
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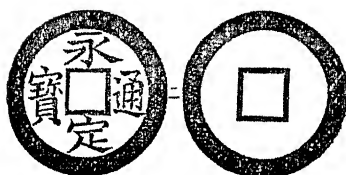
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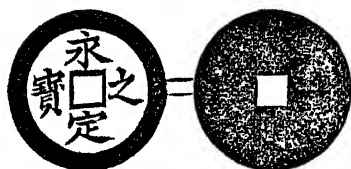
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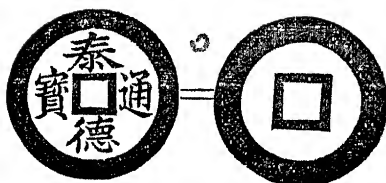
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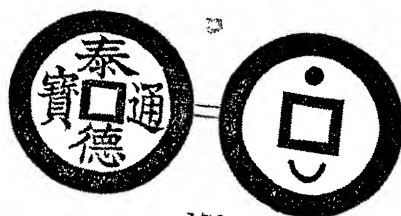
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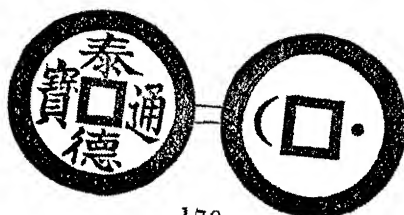
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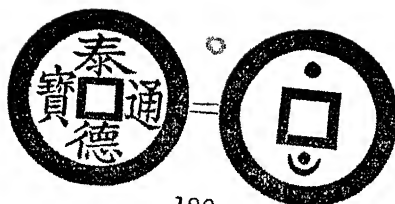
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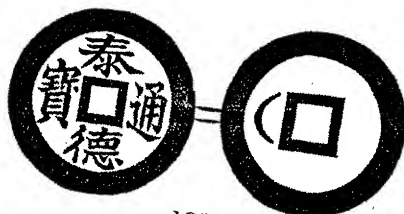
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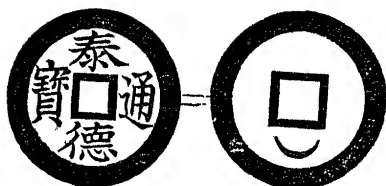
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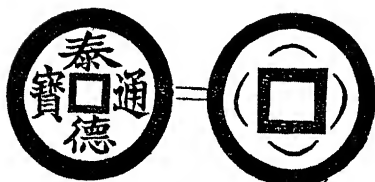
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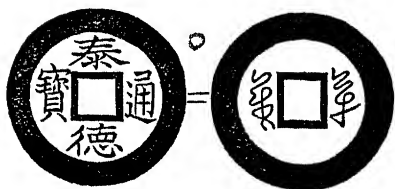
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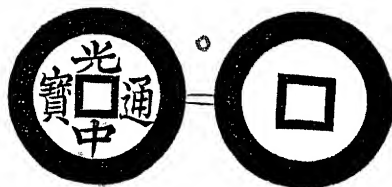
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183



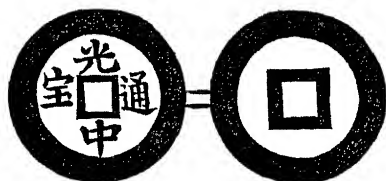
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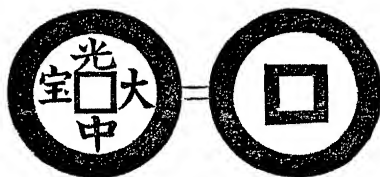
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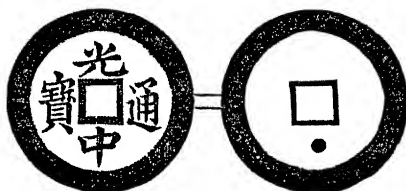
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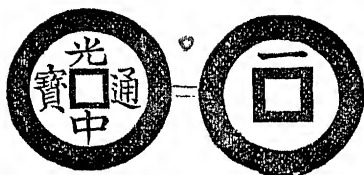
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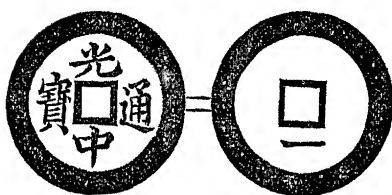
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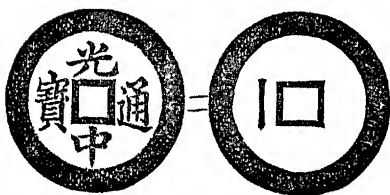
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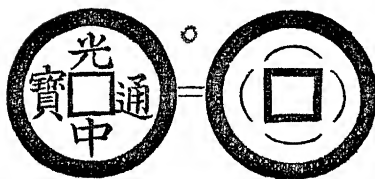
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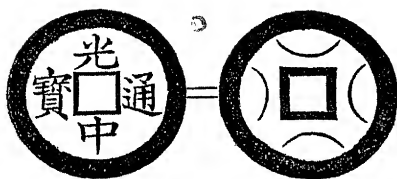
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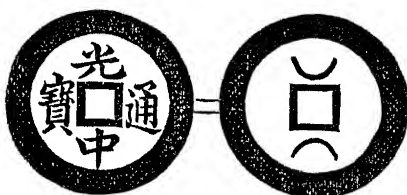
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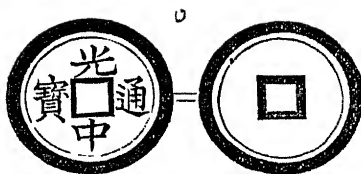
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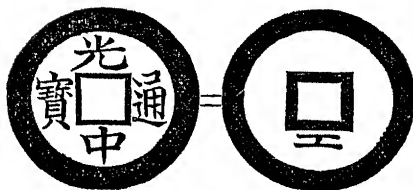
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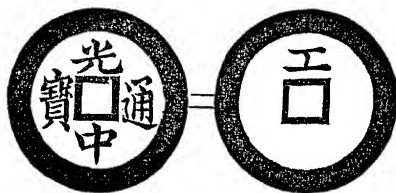
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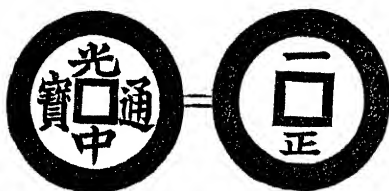
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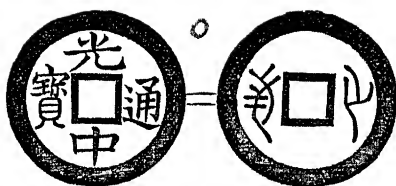
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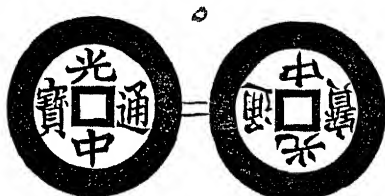
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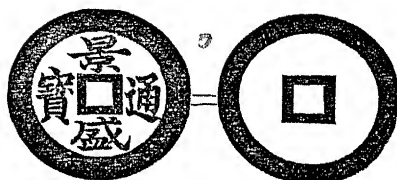
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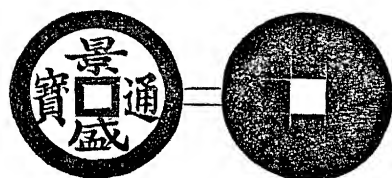
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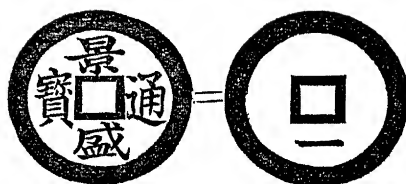
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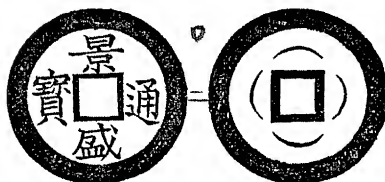
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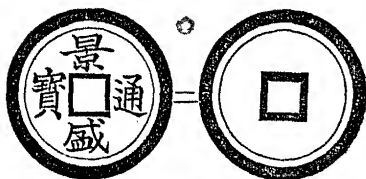
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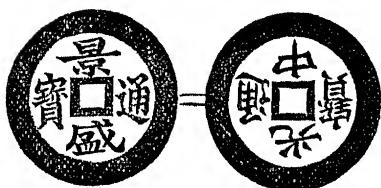
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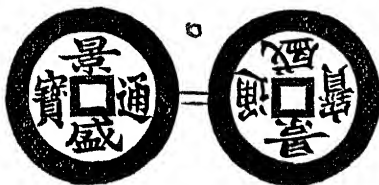
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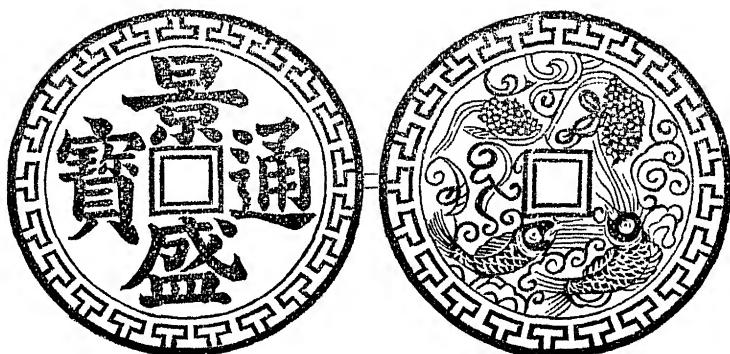
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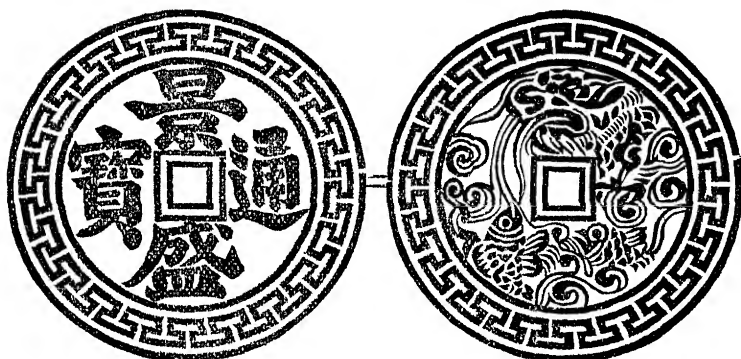
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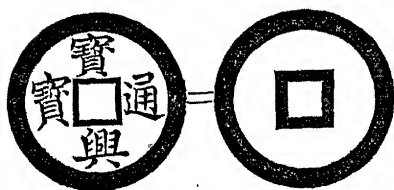
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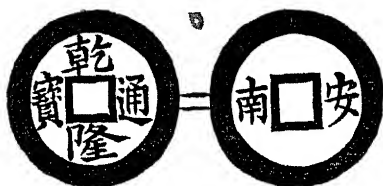
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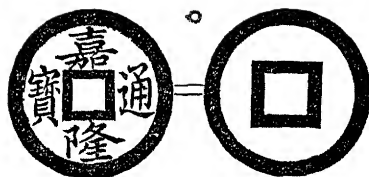
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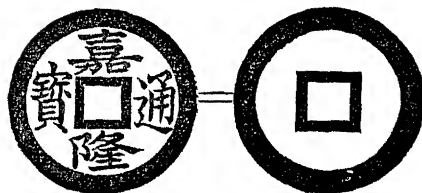
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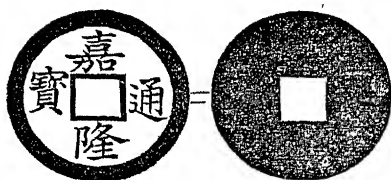
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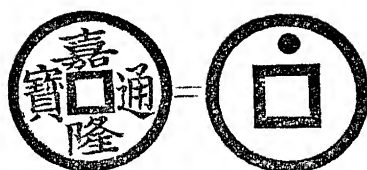
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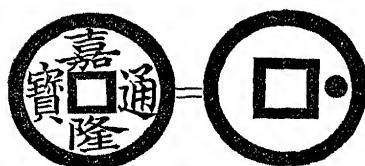
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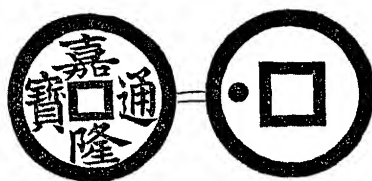
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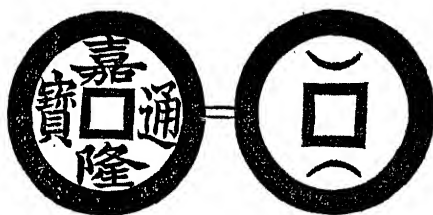
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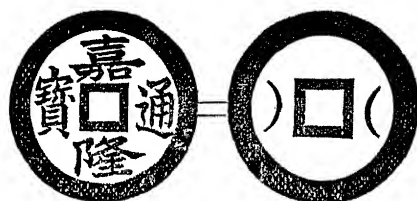
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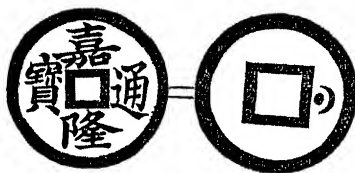
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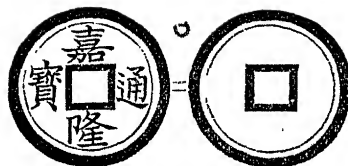
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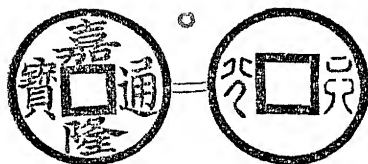
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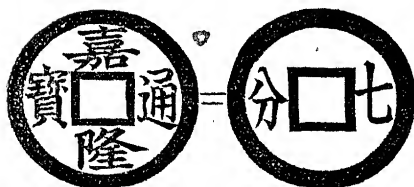
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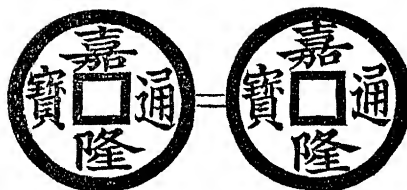
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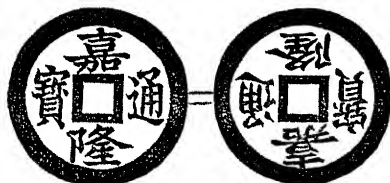
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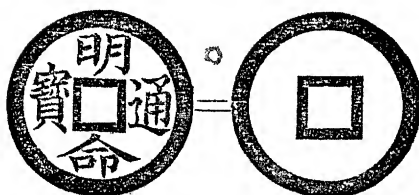
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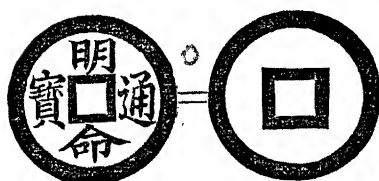
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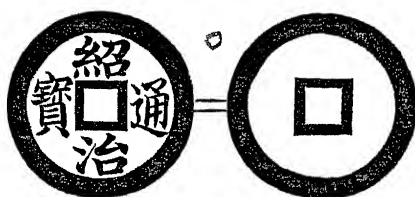
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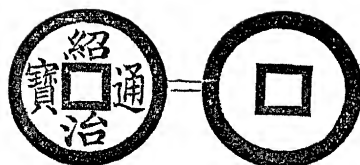
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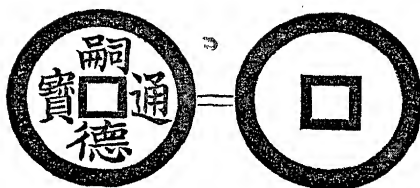
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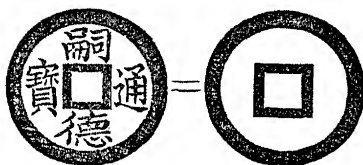
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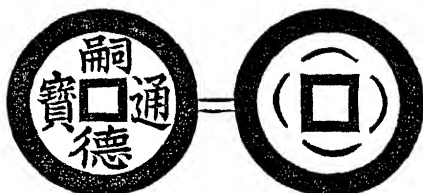
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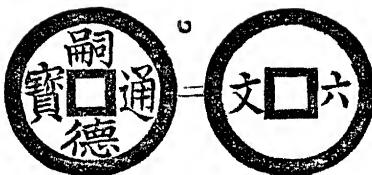
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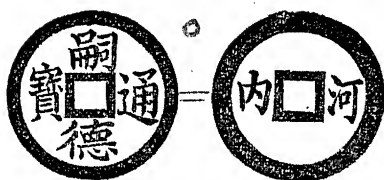
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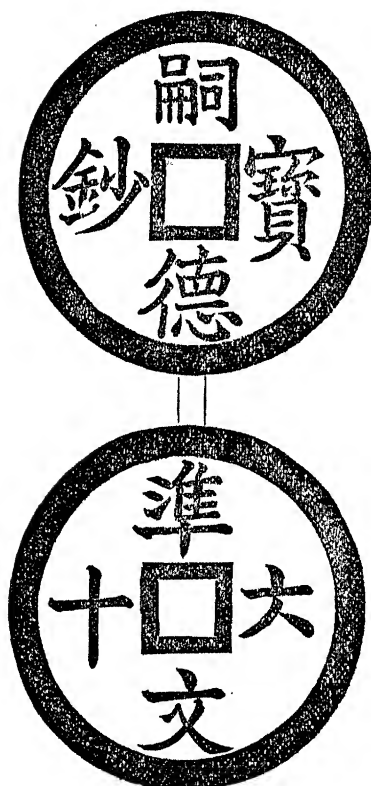
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234



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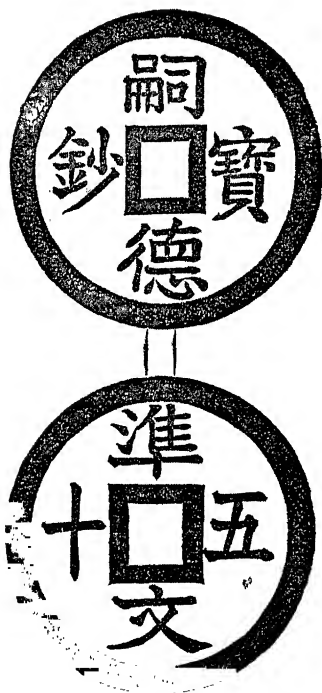


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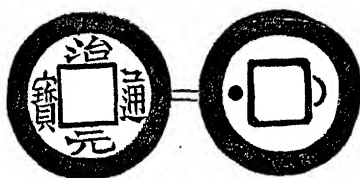


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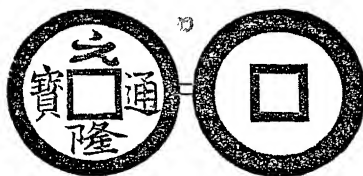


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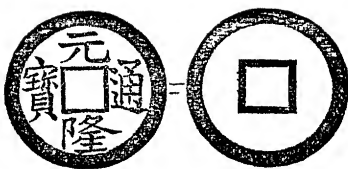


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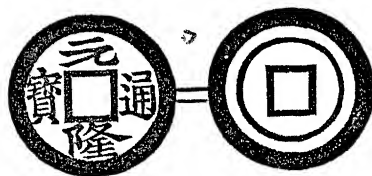
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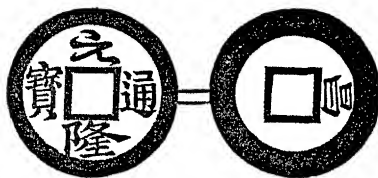
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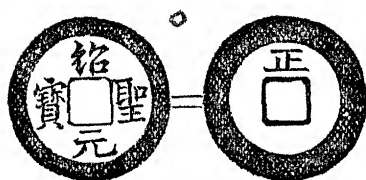
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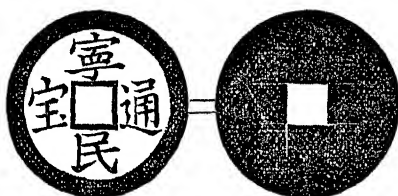
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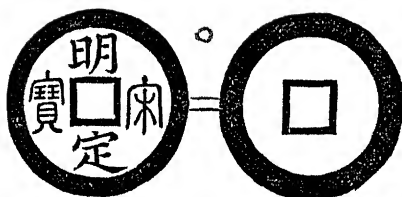
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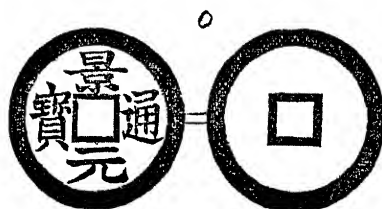
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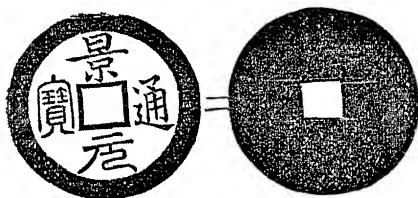
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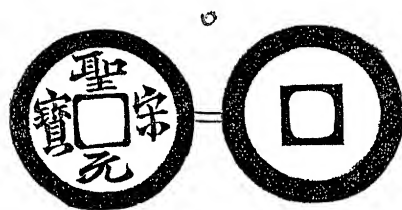
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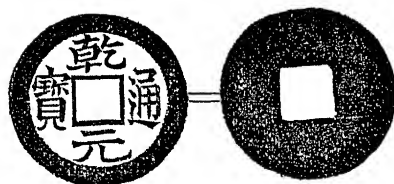
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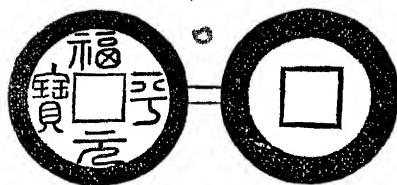
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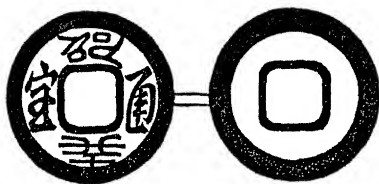
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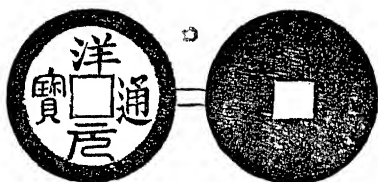
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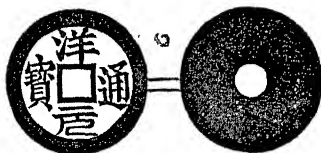
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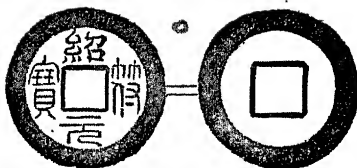
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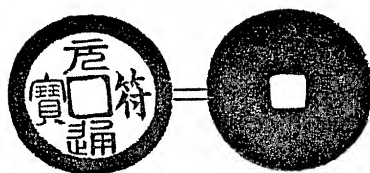
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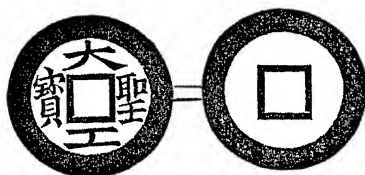
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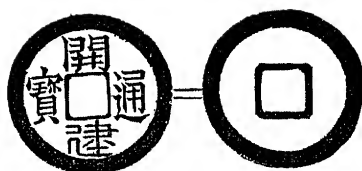
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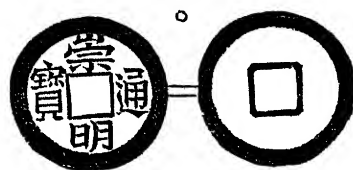
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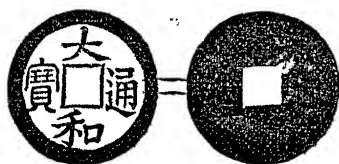
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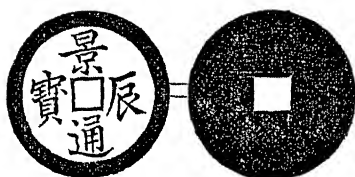
259



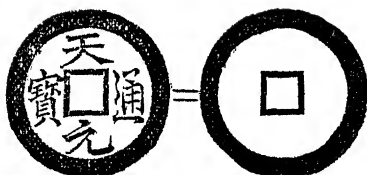
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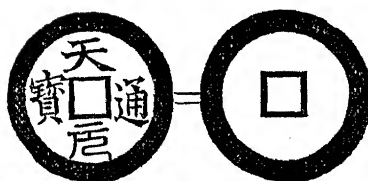
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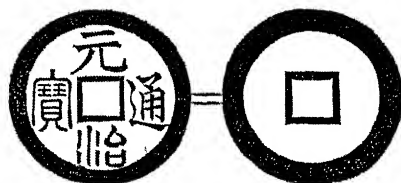
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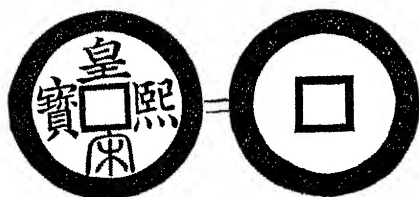
263



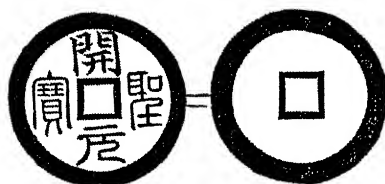
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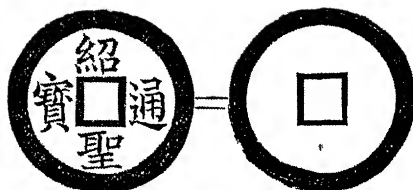
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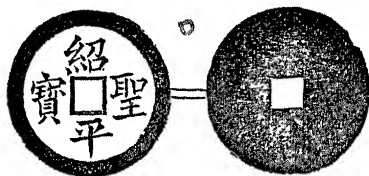
266



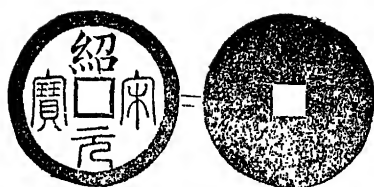
267



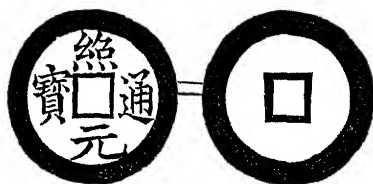
268



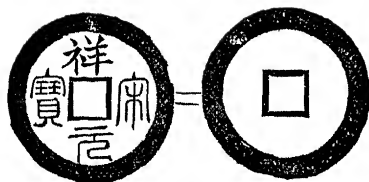
269



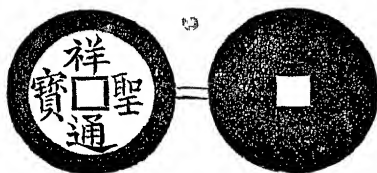
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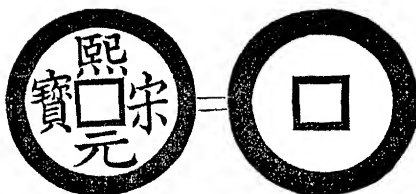
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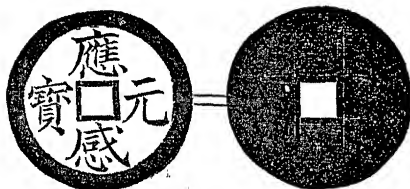
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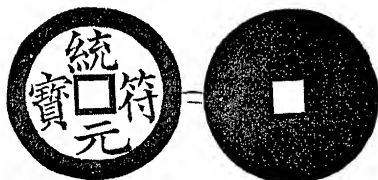
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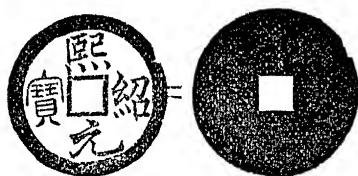
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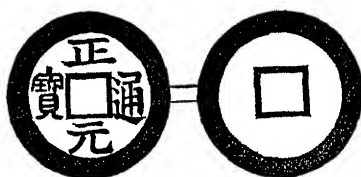
275



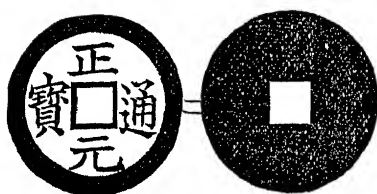
276



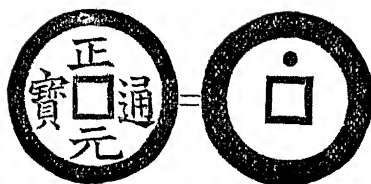
277



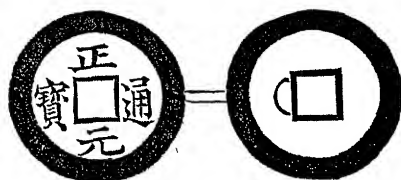
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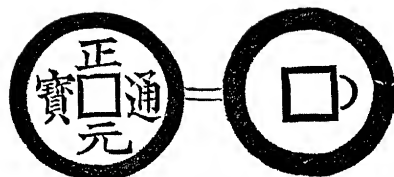
279



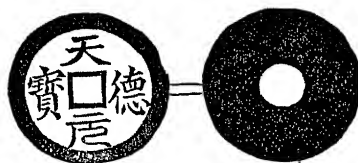
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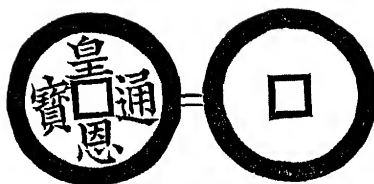
281



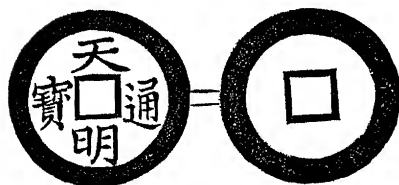
282



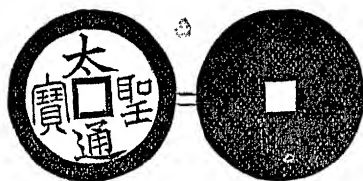
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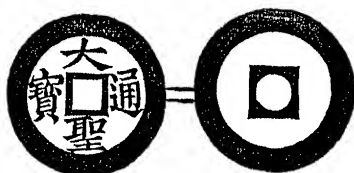
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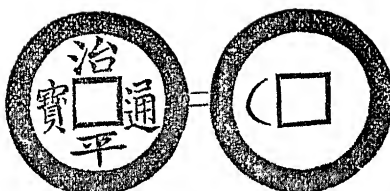
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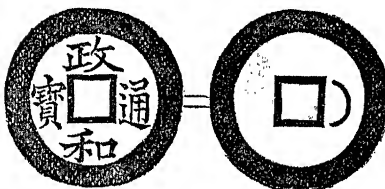
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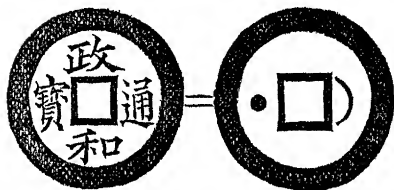
287



288



289



290

CONTENTS.

PART I.

GENERAL NOTICES.

	Page.
I. Preliminary Remarks	41
II. Geographical and Historical Notices... ..	44
III. Chronological Tables of the Annamese Dynasties	48
IV. Situation of Annam as an Independent Country	57
V. Mines	60
VI. Manufacture of Coins	65
VII. False Coinage, and Penal Laws relating thereto	68
VIII. Magazines for Coins, and Laws referring to them	70
IX. Customs and superstitions connected with Coins	72
X. Paper-money in Annam	74

PART II.

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE.

	Page.
XI. The 吳 Ngo Family.—The twelve 使君 Su-quan.—The 丁 DINH Dynasty.—The former 黎 LE Dynasty.—940-1010 A.D.	75
XII. The 李 LY Dynasty.—1010-1225	77
XIII. The 陳 TRAN Dynasty.—1225-1414	81
XIV. Rebels.—1368-1420	85
XV. Chinese Domination and War of Independence.—1414-1428... ..	90
XVI. The 黎 LE Dynasty.—1428-1785	92
XVII. Rebels.—1459-1532	114
XVIII. The 莫 MAC and NGUYEN Governments.—1527-1776	117
XIX. The 西山 TAY-SON Rebellion.—1764-1801... ..	122
XX. Chinese intervention in Tunquin, and the 阮 NGUYEN Dynasty.—1788 to date... ..	129
XXI. The NGUY-KHOI Rebellion.—1831-1834.—The NUNG Rebellion.—1832-1835.—Doubtful Coins.—1600 to date	133

ERRATA.

Page	45, Line	9, for “爻”	read “清”
”	45, ”	10, for “清”	” “爻”
”	46, ”	7, for “fu”	” “phu”
”	55, ”	8, for “嘉慶”	” “嘉隆”
”	62, ”	22, for “xaong”	” “xuong”
”	76, ”	18, for “大”	” “太”
”	77, ”	13, for “HAN”	” “HANH”
”	86, ”	6, for “DU-TOGN”	” “DU-TONG”
”	87, ”	23, for “NHUT-LE”	” “SU”
”	93, ”	32, for “LE-NINH”	” “LE-UINH”
”	93, ”	35, for “FUONG”	” “THUONG”
”	93, ”	36, for “MINH”	” “UINH”
”	94, ”	2, for “MINH”	” “UINH”
”	95, ”	9, for “天”	” “天”
”	96, ”	25, for “TRING-KIEM”	” “TRINH-KIEM”
”	98, ”	13, for “TRINH-TANG”	” “TRINH-TRANG”
”	99, ”	1, for “TRINH-TANG”	” “TRINH-TRANG”
”	107, ”	28, for “COUNG”	” “CUNG”
”	111, ”	21, for “COUNG”	” “CUNG”
”	114, ”	8, for “宣”	” “宜”
”	114, ”	29, for “LE-NINH”	” “LE-UINH”
”	123, ”	15, for “DUC-TONG”	” “DUE-TONG”
”	123, ”	19, for “DUC-TONG”	” “DUE-TONG”
”	124, ”	22, for “廣安”	” “廣南”

ARTICLE V.

THE HOPPO-BOOK OF 1753. *

By F. HIRTH, PH. D.

ON glancing over a catalogue of old and rare books published by an Amsterdam antiquarian firm, my eyes were struck by the following curious item:

“*Hoppo-book*, an explanation of the Custom House books, translated anno 1753 with the manner of settling the duties on all goods imported and exported at the port of Canton. M.S. *Avec quantité de marques et caractères Chinois.*”

I at once wrote for the book and got it. It is a manuscript written on old Dutch paper, in English spelt as words were spelt towards the close of the last century. The writer apparently takes some trouble in writing “the,” but every now and then falls back into the $\frac{y}{y}$ of his school days.

The first ten pages contain “an explanation of the Custom House books.” They throw some light on the method followed then (in 1753) by the Canton authorities in levying dues and duties upon shipping and goods. No author’s name is given. The book was probably written by some factory merchant or a factory employé who collected all available information regarding the taxation of trade at Canton for the benefit of a friend or employer at home. The author quotes an account of the matter given him by a Mr. Lockwood while he was at Limpo (*sic*) in 1756. It appears therefrom that he was at that place, probably a Chinese place, in that year. Mr. Lockwood had procured the information given by him together with a Mr. Pigod. It appears not impossible that the last named gentleman be identical with a Mr. Pigou mentioned as a factory chief in the gunner’s case of 1784. (See *Davis, The Chinese*, p. 57 in vol. I of the edition of

* Read before the Society on the 29th August, 1882.

1857.) No mention is made throughout the book of Mr. Flint who had been acting as interpreter to the factories in 1747 and just at the time when our manuscript was draughted must have been at the height of his reputation as a Chinese scholar and a judge of Chinese commercial and fiscal matters.

The second and greater part of the book consists of copies of the three Chinese tariffs then in force (the fixed tariff, the tariff of values and the comparative tariff.) The Chinese text of this part is apparently written by a *Hsien-shéng*, who did his work faithfully from beginning to end, whereas the English version is but partially entered in the spaces left blank for it. The translator did apparently not know Chinese, but made his entries with the assistance of a linguist. He confines his renderings to the names of articles in the tariff with the duty fixed for them. Sentences and other more complicated expressions are left untranslated. One cannot help being struck by the quality of the ink used in the Chinese portion of the tariffs; these characters look as if they were written yesterday, both in shape and in colour; we would have never credited them with a hundred and twenty years age but for the quaint pale English writing they are mixed up with.

The division of the tariff is very much the same as that of the present Chinese one. The goods are brought into certain categories; the tariff units being generally the same as nowadays (100 catties, piece, etc.) Imports and Exports are not distinguished. The duties themselves appear low, though not so if we consider the great difference existing in the value of money then and now. It appears that five kinds of taxes were then levied on foreign trade, viz:—

1.—*An Import Duty*, payable on merchandize imported by a fixed Tariff.

2.—*An Export Duty*, payable on all exports, irrespective of origin (*i. e.*, including foreign goods re-exported to other Chinese provinces, say to Ningpo, to which place foreign ships

resorted under exceptional circumstances), and consisting of a Tariff charge *plus* a six *per cent ad valorem* duty.

3.—*Extra-charges* on merchandize imported or exported, for

a.—Remitting the duty to Peking,

b.—Sundry small charges for weighers, Linguists, “Hoo-poo houses,” etc.

These, it is stated, amounted in the case of Imports to nearly half the Tariff duty.

4.—*The Measurage.*

5.—*The Present.*

Copies of the three Tariffs communicated in this manuscript are no doubt procurable at Canton, Peking, or elsewhere, as the Chinese text has been professedly copied “from the Emperor’s printed books.” To us, however, the remarks made by a Foreign Merchant at those times, with details it is notoriously difficult to procure even as applied to the present day, are of greater interest than the official document. They contain quite a treasure of facts regarding the levy of duties upon goods and shipping which, not being mentioned by other writers of those times, may prove valuable to the student of Foreign and Chinese relations during the middle of the 18th century, and may be regarded a welcome supplement to the accounts of factory trade contained in the first volume of Sir John Davis’ “China,” in Osbeck’s voyage and the Chinese Repository. They read as follows:— * *

An Explanation of the following Custom-house books, translated anno 1753, with the Manner of settling the duties on all goods imported and exported at the Port of Canton.

The Chinese have three books relating to the duties on all goods imported and exported at Canton, which have been examined and authorised by the Court of Hoo-poo, or Superintendence of Duties, Tributes, &c. at Peking, and are as follow:—

1st Ching Heang Tsé Lé, or the book of true and fixed duties.

2nd Pé Lé, or the book of Comparison.

3rd Coo Keà, or the book of Valuation.

The first of these books was made in the very beginning of the European trade to China, and finished as it now stands, in the 25th year of the Emperor Càng Hè A.D. 1687, and was ordered never to be altered, or added to; on which account it is call'd the book of true and fixed duties.

Upon the increase of the trade to that place it was soon found impossible to do without either adding to the first book, or making a new one; great variety of different goods and toys being brought every year. The way they hit on was to make a second book, called the book of Comparison, in which all new articles are compared with some of the things in the first book of true and fixed duties, and the duty fixed according to the proportion they bear to them. For instance, in folio 3 of the second book, is the following article; Large Wax figures, one, compared with five pieces of Jasper Trifles manufactured, one piece four candareens.

That is to say, Wax figures (being things not mentioned in the book of fixed duties) one compared with five pieces of Jasper (that is; one figure by comparing it with Jasper which is in the first book, is thought equitable to pay equal to five pieces of that Jasper) one piece four candareens, (that is, one piece of Jasper pays four candareens) by which account it will be found, that one Wax figure pays the same duty as five pieces of Jasper, or two mace. To show what little care has been taken in this book, to compare things that have some analogy one to the other, and by that means to fix the duty with some appearance of equity; one need only turn over to the folios 3, 4, 9 and 18, where Tweezars cases, Swords, Hand organs, and Watches, are compared with Spying glasses; and

at folio 50, Mariners compasses with Spectacles, with many others equally improper. *

This book with about 150 articles collected together in it, was first sent to the Court of Hoo-poo at Peking for their approbation, in the end of the 11th year of the late Emperor Yong-ching A.D. 1733; and as there is something or other new coming continually to China, the same method is now used every two or three years, of sending the new articles to Peking, to be approved of there; so that this book which seems invented only to puzzle, will be increasing continually, while the first book which is put in an easy plain form, will be kept as it was above sixty years ago.

The third book is a Valuation price, set upon all goods that are, or may be exported from Canton, on which 6 per cent is drawn, and added to the other duty on such exports. †

* To select a few additional examples, a large Foreign musket paid as a Spying glass; a pair of Spectacles was the head which covered also a Foreign small knife, a pair of scissors, a set of knives and forks, etc.

† These values may in some respect be compared to the "valeur officielle" as opposed to the "valeur commerciale" made use of in the trade statistics of several European countries. They were not subject to the fluctuations of the market, but fixed once for ever. We must assume that the prices contained in the Tariff of values appended to the manuscript were at the time of its being framed, based upon the actual condition of the market, though some of the rates there given strike us now as almost incredibly low. We should not forget, however, that money had quite a different value even in England a hundred years ago, and that the value of commodities may have been lower still in the Far East. We are astonished to read that in 1755 a picul of Silk could be valued at Tls. 100, one of Tea at Tls. 8; that White Sugar was worth Tls. 1.50, Brown Sugar Tls. 1, Sugar Candy Tls. 2.50; Rhubarb Tls. 1.50 per picul, Musk Tls. 1.50 and Opium (called *Ya-pien*) only 5 mace per catty. The value of a chest of opium would therefore, have amounted to not quite a hundred dollars. The existence of opium as an article of trade at Canton is certainly beyond doubt; opium is also mentioned in Kang-hsi's Tariff of 1687, and there pays a duty of 3 candareen per catty, constituting exactly six per cent of the fixed value appearing in the *Ku-chi*; it is nothing to show, however, whether the opium then sold at Canton is of foreign or of native origin. The fact of its being mentioned in the "Book of values" proves that it was in the habit of being exported; but this is also the case with many other articles of clearly foreign origin, and it appears that exports and re-exports were then treated alike. Some kind of re-export trade has probably existed from Canton to certain coast ports (we know that trade with Ningpo was constantly aimed at by the factory merchants); this may be concluded from the fact, that amongst the special rules appended to Kang-hsi's Tariff a restriction appears prohibiting the export to Fukien and Chekiang of spelter, foreign satin (*Yang-tuan*) and Cantonese Chinacloth (*Tu-fu-ling*.)

Besides the duty specified in these books, which is to be paid in Sisee, or pure silver; there is another, for charges in carrying the money up to Peking, to be paid in Sisee also: besides which are sundry small charges for Weighers, Linguists, Hoo-poo houses, &c.; making altogether on the Imports, which have no valuation, near half as much as the fixed duty. It is very difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain these charges exactly, as the Merchants, who at present pay the duties, and settle all the Custom House business, are obliged to comply with small encroachments, and are cautious of being too stiff in asserting their right, since those very people who receive it, have it in their power to be very troublesome, and greatly impede their business. The usual method they take is to pay the duties pretty much in the gross, yet if care be taken to get the account of the charges from proper people, they will not differ enough to be of any consequence in trade, not making above six or eight cash difference in a picul of goods; as the following examples of the duty on a picul of Bohea tea, procured from two different people will show.

The 1st Example.

The small charges, called the Peculage, are as follow:—

	m.	c.	c.
Fan-tow Cooè-li or pecul custom	0	3	8
Charges on the 1st Custom house going			
to Whampoa	0	0	8
Sé-pán Ching-chew, or the Weighers	0	0	2
Tsé-pán Quàn-tow, or the Writers	0	1	6
Hooè-quan, or the Joss house	0	0	4
Tong-sé, or the Linguist	0	2	0
	0	8	8

	m.	c.	c.
The fixed duty, as per 1st Book, on one pecul of Bohea tea	2	0	0
Kea-how, or charges for remitting the money to Peking being 10 per cent on the fixed duty	0	2	0
Eight per cent to make the Dollars Sisee	0	1	8

Carried forward ————— 2 3 8

	<i>Brought forward</i>	2	3	8
Thun-fang, or the account of 2 per cent.....		0	0	4
Peculage duty as above		0	8	8
Coo-kea, or the valuation price of Bohea tea, being 8 Taels per pecul, as by that Book, 6 per cent. Drawn thereon (as in all Exports) is		4	8	0
Total duty on 1 pecul of Bohea tea...		8	1	0

The 2nd Example.

	m.	c.	c.	
The fixed duty on 1 pecul of Bohea tea	2	0	0	
Kea-how 10 per cent	0	2	0	
Eight per cent to make the above Sisee	0	1	8	
				2 3 8
Thun-fang 2 per cent	}			0 0 4
Ping-tow 2 per cent		in Dollar money...		0 0 4
Peculage duty				0 9 0
Coo-kea, or 6 per cent on 8 Taels.....				4 8 0
Total duty on 1 pecul of Bohea tea...		8	1	6

The Customs on all commodities are calculated in the same manner as above, with this difference only, that the Imports pay no valuation.

The imposition of the Weigher is, upon an average on teas, about 25 per cent; so that the Merchant pays above a Tael per pecul on all teas; and no doubt every other sorts of goods is weighed in the same unjust manner.

There is a deduction made of 10 per cent on the weight of all goods in favour of the Merchant, which is to be taken off before the duty is computed. *

This is designed as an equivalent for the packages, as the goods are all weighed in gross: but in some cases, it by no means answers, for in Tea, where $\frac{2}{3}$ chests are made slight and thin on purpose, instead of 10, the proportion on an average

* Besides this allowance made on account of *tare* some special facilities were granted in the case of certain goods, as is shown in the untranslated portion of the Tariff. Thus of *Chinaware*, which was not put to the scale, every ten pieces were considered to make one picul, and a barrel (*t'ung*) of it was also passed as "a hundred catties,"—old China being always excepted. *Iron Pans*, *Samshu*, and several other articles were similarly treated. Of *Chinese Spectacles* 2,000 went on a picul, of *Paper Fans*, 1,600.

is above 14 per cent. Of late years indeed since the company have imported large quantities of Cloth, and bought a good deal of Raw Silk, both which are packed in bales, on which there is a considerable advantage; the Merchants, with respect to the English trade, have been nearly on a par as to this allowance.

The Chinese measure all ships that come into their ports to trade, in order to calculate a duty, which ought in strictness (though not now always observed) to be paid before any business is begun. This has been a customary Port charge, ever since the Europeans have traded to China. They reckon three sizes or rates of ships, viz:

	covids.		covids.		Tael	Decs.
A first rate is	75	Log.	23	Bro. or upwards and pays	7777	per Covd.
A second rate is	70	"	21	" an on to a 1st rate pays	7143	do.
A third rate is	60	"	20	" and on to a 2nd rate, and pays	5000	do.

But it has been always found that when the rate was under a first and above a second, they have reckoned at that rate it was nearest, or else computed the measurage at an average.

To compute the measurage, the length (taken from the center of the fore mast, to the center of the Mizen mast) must be multiplied by the breadth, (taken from inside to inside of the middle Deck—just before the Main mast) and that sum by the price, according to the rate of the ship. The produce is the Measurement, but the Emperor allows a deduction of 20 per cent. The remainder is the Emperors' real duty, on which the Hoo-poo has 10 per cent, and the Yng-fang, or the officers that attend him, 2 per cent; but the sum due to the Emperor and the Hoo-poo must be paid in pure silver. As our dollars have always been esteemed full $\frac{23}{100}$ th or Touch, we compute the difference at 7 per cent; but according to the present encroachments in the Emperor's Treasury, the merchant, or Linguist, to whom we pay this money is forced to make it 8 per cent; as in the above accounts of the duty on tea, and that sometimes passes with difficulty.

Besides the measurage, every ship whether great or small, is charged with 1950 Tales, in lieu of all presents. This imposi-

tion took its rise from an old custom among the Europeans, of giving small sums of money to different people in the Hoo-poo's Office. An evil of this sort once begun, increased yearly; till a Tsong-too (not many years ago) being appointed Hoo-poo, or custom master general of the port, finding that presents were given at his office, from eighteen hundred to two thousand Tales per ship, made a regular demand of 1950 Tales, and annexed the major part of it to the Emperor's duties, after having got it confirmed at Peking. The French, for what reason I don't know, pay 2050 Tales.

	covd. decs.	
Length of the ship.....	78,1	} Example of a 1strate.
Breadth	24,2	
	1562	
	3124	
	1562	
	1890,02	This sum to be multiplied by the price of a first rate.
	7777	
	1323014	
	1323014	
	1323014	
	1323014	
The measurage	1469,868554	from which deduct 20 per cent.
	293,973710	
The Emperor's Duty	1175,894844	on which the Yng-fang has 20 * per cent and the Hoo-poo 10 per cent to be paid in Sisee for which add 7 per cent
	117,589484	
Emperor's and Hoo-poo's Duty	1293,484328	in Sisee for the Yng-fang paid in dollar money.
	90,843902	
Emperor's and Hoo-poo's Duty	1384,328230	of the measurage and present. †
Reckon 2 per cent on Emperor's Duty	23,517896	
The total measurage	1407,846	
The present	1950,000	
Total Port charge	3357,846	

* This should read "2 per cent." as the calculation shows.

† An error in calculating the 7 per cent levied for Sisee payment (which should read 90,543,902 instead of 90,843,902) makes the total too high by 3 mace.

The Chinese characters, in these books, are copied exactly as they stand in the Emperor's printed books; and I have put just as many articles, and the same number of columns in every page, for the easier settling any of the particulars with the Chinese. Under each character is its pronunciation written in European letters; and in the columns next to the characters is the explanation of each article in English.

The articles left unfinished up and down in many places, are chiefly such linen cloths, stuffs, and silks as are made only for the use of the Chinese; and also of Herbs, Druggs, &c. of which very few of the names, if any, are known in Europe.

The last 39 pages in the Book of true and fixed duties not translated, consist of the Measurage of the Chinese and European ships; the 10 per cent to be taken from all goods in favour of the Merchant; the mixing good and bad sorts of goods together, and making an average duty on them; that good and spoiled things are not to pay alike; the Custom House passes for Chinese ships; the duties on greens and provisions for ships; the duties on fishing boats; with many other things of the same kind. The 10 per cent and the Measurage have been taken notice of above, and the rest are of little use; for as to the mixing of good and bad sorts of goods together and making an average duty on them, these are not above ten articles specified, (which are translated) and in other instances, when a plea is made that spoiled and good things are not to pay alike; the Hoo-poo himself is always the Judge, and settles it according to his own fancy and inclination.

The following account of the Duties and Impositions of a Ship at Canton, which is a very clear and distinct one, I received in a letter from Mr. Lockwood, while I was at Limpo in the year 1756.

“Enclosed you have an account of the Customs and every other charge on a ship at this Port that is procurable, which Mr. Pigod and I have found great difficulty in getting; and I

flatter myself it is tolerably correct. I have found the Merchants very backward in answering my questions, yet I think the intelligence I have got is much, or more, to be depended upon, than if I had entirely got it from them.

	Tls.	m.	c.	c.
The Emperor's duty per picul on Bohea tea ...	"	2	0	0
14 per cent on the 2 mace for charges of } sending the money to Peking & } Secretaries & accountants	"	0	2	8
m. c. c.				dec.
8 per cent on 2 2 8 to make it Sisee.....	"	0	1	8 24
5 $\frac{4}{10}$ per cent on the Valuation, it being 8 Tales. per pecul	"	4	3	2
A Duty of 1 Mace per pecul, for peculage, } particular account of which is below ... }	"	1	0	0
The Linguists charge for victualling the } Hoppos people at shipping off and for } boat hire to the ship	"	0	3	0
	"	8	0	8 24

"Shopkeepers and others who cannot ship off goods, but are forced to employ others for that purpose, pay 8m. 8c. 0c. per pecul for the Export on Bohea tea, viz:

	Tls.	m.	c.	c.
They pay 6 per cent on the valuation of 8 } Tales per pecul which makes their } charge more.....	"	0	4	8
Instead of 3 candareens, they pay 5, for $\frac{e}{y}$ } victualing of Hoppos people &c. which } makes the difference of	"	0	2	0
And commonly the Linguists charge when } they collect the duties, to make the } money even	"	0	0	3 76
This the Hongists reap the advantage of.....	"	0	7	1 76

"Formerly the Secretaries and Accountants had a share in the 14 per cent on the 2 mace. Now the Emperor keeps the whole, and pays them wages, but out of it he pays the charges of sending the duties from Canton to his Court.

"The 8 per cent charge on 2m. 2c. 8c. per pecul to make that sum sisee, differs and is some times less. • • •

"The 5 $\frac{4}{10}$ per cent duty (on what used to be called 6 per

cent) on the valuation of 8 Tls. per pecul is paid in dollar money. Of this $5\frac{4}{10}$ per cent

	dec.
The Emperor has only	4, 8
And the Hospital for poor persons, who have } no children to maintain them, has	6
	<hr/>
	5, 4

“The Emperor’s share is, by his Hoppo, made into sisee for him at his charge.

“The Duty of 1 Mace per pecul, called Peculage, was very lately only 9 Candareens. The Merchants then, for their house of meeting, or Joss House, had only 4 cash per pecul out of the peculage duty, whereas they have now 1c. 4c.

“The distribution of the Peculage Duty viz:—

	m.	c.	c.
The Hoppo has	0	3	8
„ Linguist	0	2	2
„ Weighers	0	0	2
„ Persons of the 1st Hoppo house	0	0	8
„ Hoppo guards or soldiers of which there } are 7 rooms	0	1	6
„ Merchants for their Joss or Meeting House	0	1	4
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1	0	0

“Ten per cent. being only deducted for packages they lose $4\frac{8}{100}$ per cent on Bohea chests; and on Singlo’s, suppose them to be packed in pecul chests, $6\frac{6}{100}$ per cent.

“But as this 10 per cent is always deducted on all goods imported, whether in packages or not, they are not of opinion they lose anything by that charge.

“There is not the 6 per cent, or $5\frac{4}{10}$ on any valuation for Imports.

“The Emperor’s Dotchin and the Merchants are the same. The latter have a standard Dotchin in their meeting house, which agrees with that of the Emperor’s. This I had the curiosity to send for the other day, that I might with the greater exactness give you the true weight of their pecul,

which is 132 lbs. 2 oz. 964 dec. avoirdupois. The Weighers are often bribed by the Merchants to make the goods shipped off weigh less than they really do.

“One hundred Tales in Sisee money weighed by a Merchant, or by the Rifiner, when carried to the Receivers of the Customs, is found deficient in weight Tls. 1. 3, or thereabouts. Formerly it was only 3 or 4 mace less. This plunder the Hoppo and his people have.

“Wrought silks pay 1 Candareen per piece more than other goods, as a bribe to the Hoppo, to prevent his searching for yellow colors which are prohibited.

“The Emperor has nearly all the money collected from the measurage of ships, and presents of 1950 Tales.

“The distribution of the 1950 Tales viz:—

	Tls.	m.	c.	c.
To the Emperor on the ships arrival	1089	6	4	0
” ” on the ships departure	516	5	6	1
” Leantow, for the poor	132	0	0	0
” Security’s Dispatchador.....	12	0	0	0
” Scrivans on measuring ^e ship, for {	8	4	0	0
boats &c.				
” Soldiers who attend ^e measurage for do.	5	5	6	0
” Soldiers belonging to the Hoppo, on {	16	7	8	0
the arrival of the ship.....				
” Foyen on notice of the ships arrival ...	2	8	0	0
” Quang-chu-foo do.	2	8	0	0
” Pàn-eu-hien, Whampo do.	1	7	0	0
” Nan-hay hien do.	1	2	0	0
” Kewn-min-foo, Macao do.	1	2	0	0
” Hoppo’s officers that attend the ship {				
during her stay in the River, who				
are allowed 36 Tales per month.				
This 150 Tales is given the Ling-				
uist for that expense, which is				
little more than enough for 4				
months, so that if a ship exceeds				
that time he is obliged to pay				
the rest	150	0	0	0
The difference of the Emperor’s weights, or {				
rather the plunder of the Hoppo, &c. ...	9	3	5	9
	<hr/>			
	1950	0	0	0
	<hr/>			

“The Linguist is also obliged to make the following presents per ship, before her departure.

	Tls.
To the 1st Hoppo house	10
” 2nd do.	5
” Whampo do.	10
	<hr/> 25

“Also 12 Taels per month, for all the ships, to $\frac{2}{3}$ Hoppo on Danés Island for [having] permitted the English sailors to walk there.

“The charges of unloading a ship at Whampo per day are as follow:—

	Tls.	m.	c.	c.
To the Hoppo	2	0	0	0
” Kow-fang, or Secretary	7	2	0	
” Writer	7	2	0	
” Linguist	7	2	0	
” Whampo Hoppo for eating	3	0	0	
” do. for tea, Bectle, &c.	3	0	0	
” Weigher	1	1	1	0
” 3 Hoppo houses	7	2	0	
” Hoppo man for taking care of the goods	2	0	0	
The Hoppo's people eating at the Factory } comes to about }	3	0	0	0
For the hire of a Boat	1	4	4	0
Tales	11	2	3	0

“The charge on a Boat of goods from Canton to Whampo, is the same as a Boat from the Ship.

“The fees, at going away, to the 3 Hoppo-houses are increased to near 40 dollars per ship. They were formerly only a few dollars, 3 or 5 per ship. What the Merchants give can't be known, and what the Linguists give, is already mentioned.

“The Hoppo continually wants presents to send to Court. For all clocks, he pays from 40 to 80 Taels; for Pearls about 300 Taels; for what costs the merchants 1000 Taels.

“The Hoppo in 1755 demanded of $\frac{2}{3}$ Merchants at his leaving Canton, 15,000 Taels, and they by great intercession, got off for Taels 3,300.

"The Linguist gets 2c. 2c. part of the peculage duty but he abates from it 20 per cent that he may be paid in Dollar money, instead of money of 75 or less touch. This reduces it to 1c. 7c. 6dec., so that

If a ship Imports	5000	
" " Exports	5000	
	<u>10000</u>	which is accounted to him only as 9000
because 10 per cent is taken off for packages, his gain		peculs,
therefore on that is		Tls. 158
He has a present besides of about		" 70
		<u>228</u>

"What he gets by impositions is impossible to be known."





BIBLIOGRAPHY.

CHINESISCHE GRAMMATIK mit Ausschluss des NIEDEREN STILES und der HEUTIGEN UMGANGS-SPRACHE. Von GEORG VON DER GABELENTZ.

OF all the Chinese grammars so far published this is the most perfect, inasmuch as it unites with the fulness of Premare's work * the scholarly clearness of Schott's "Chinesische Sprachlehre." Its author is the son of a renowned Chinese and Manchu scholar and now occupies the Chinese chair at the University of Leipsic; he has for a considerable number of years made the analysis of ancient written Chinese his chief study, and appears thus to have been specially qualified for the work he has given us. In writing this exhaustive work he meant it to become a detailed scientific hand-book for the classical and post-classical language, embracing all the material the present state of sinology furnishes; one of its main purposes would appear to be to enable the student to read and understand Chinese without the assistance of either teacher or translation, and to express his thoughts correctly in the language thus learned.

The Grammar is divided into three books. The first of these contains a sort of introduction to the study of the language and all that had to be said about sounds, tones and characters; also a chapter, quite new to Chinese grammatical literature, regarding the problems connected with the ancient sounds and etymological features of the language. In the introductory chapter a review is given of the history of the language as regards its various literary styles, its dialects and its relation to the languages of neighbouring countries,

* It contains in all about 4,000 examples.

also some interesting remarks on the method to be applied to the study of the language. As regards the chapter following the introduction, the "Laut-und Betonungslehre," i.e. the study of sounds and tones, it is to be regretted that the author has never had an opportunity to make studies on the spot; a year spent in different provinces of the Empire would have furnished him with ample material for scientific research in connexion with the dialects, the comparative study of which would constitute almost a science in itself. The first book closes with a chapter on the fundamental principles of the language. This subject, it must be clear to all who have watched the progress of sinology, is von der Gabelentz's own province. Since the pioneering work of Schott, the nestor of living sinologues, no one has contributed so largely as von der Gabelentz towards the building up of a regular system of Chinese grammar. I am well aware that there is no lack of scholars who do not believe in any system; who, like the Chinese themselves, have succeeded in grasping the sense of a Chinese text by a sort of intuition, and who judge of the correctness of a sentence, instinctively, as it were, by the routine of reading. Many will not admit any other but the imperfect method adopted by the Chinese themselves, who, with their Hsü-tze theory, are as ignorant of the grammatical structure of their language as they are ignorant of the science of logic. This is by no means to be wondered at. The Iliad was written generations before the existence of anything like an *ars grammatica*, and yet Homer has probably not written a line which is not consistent with the rules of his style. He may have been unconscious of these rules, but he was instinctively guided by them. A similar process takes place with those who, without rules, write and read Chinese correctly. No language would be intelligible without a certain conventional regularity in the use of sounds or signs. To discover the rules unconsciously followed by speakers or writers of a language is the object of the

science called grammar. The grammarian who, by means of analogy, lays down the terms upon which, in a language, human thought is expressed (whether by sounds through the ear, or by signs through the eye), performs work not absolutely necessary, for language was understood before him and would continue to be understood without him; but he performs work highly useful, inasmuch as those previously unconscious may, through him, become conscious of existing rules, which may be a help to those whose instinct in submitting to the rule is not that of the majority, and is thus likely to lead them into mistakes; while, on the other hand, those previously ignorant of the language may, through him, at once become acquainted with the rule without having to wait till habit enables them instinctively to follow it. To the latter class of students, especially, the grammarian furnishes a considerable short-cut in acquiring a language.

It is the special merit of von der Gabelentz to have not only added considerably to the stock of rules discovered by his predecessors from Prémare down to Julien, but to have made a successful attempt to construct a complete system of Chinese grammar. The following results, being the substance of the fourth chapter of Book I., may be considered the basis upon which his *detailed* work has been built up. With regard to *words* we distinguish:—

(a.) their *fundamental meaning*: whether they designate individuals, or classes, qualities, numerals, actions, or conditions, etc. It is from their fundamental meaning that we derive the *categories* of words which we are accustomed to call noun, adjective, verb, etc.; and

(b.) the *function* they perform in a sentence, upon which it depends whether they be used as nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc., or whether we have to take them as representing the case of a noun, the comparative degree of an adjective, gender, mood, or tense of a verb, etc. Thus we consider 大 *ta*, great, as coming within the category of adjectives, whether it may or may not

temporarily perform the functions of a noun, meaning "greatness," of an adverb, meaning "in a great measure," or of a verb, meaning to "magnify."

We consider the category as permanently attaching to the word, though the functions it performs may change.

The whole grammar which follows is based upon syntax, which again consists of a few rules, more or less obligatory, of position. The construction of a sentence is at once the first object of analytical research and of the synthetical use of the language.

I. Subject and predicate are essential parts of a grammatical sentence; the expression of the copula (or substantive verb) is not essential. *The subject precedes the predicate*: 王 *wang*, king, 曰 *yüeh* to speak=*wang yüeh* the king said; 民安 *min an*, the people (are) quiet.

II. *A verb precedes its object*. Prepositions are verbs both as regards their origin and their syntactic treatment. 治國 *chih-kuo*, to govern the country; 孰能知之 *shu néng chih chih*, who may know it? 止於仁 *chih yü jén*, to have a firm stand in humanity. This rule is not without exception.

III. A grammatical part of a sentence (Satztheil) may consist of two or more words placed together co-ordinate to each other. Co-ordination may be either cumulative, as "A and B," or alternative, as "A or B." 山海 *shan hai*, hill and sea; 內外 *nei wai*, within and without, within or without; 是非 *shih fei*, to be or not to be, right and wrong; 二三 *érh san*, two or three.

IV. *A word by which another word is determined precedes the latter*:

(a.) Genitive: 乃心 *nai hsin*, your heart; 天子 *t'ien tzü*, the son of heaven.

(b.) Adjectives: 聖人 *shéng jén*, holy man; 大夫 *ta fu*, great man, dignitary.

(c.) Numerals: 四方 *ssü fang*, the four quarters.

(d.) Adverbs: 不知 *pu chih*, not to know; 何不來 *‘ho pū lai*, why not coming? 吾日三省吾身 *wu jih san shéng wu shén*, I daily thrice examine my person (myself).

V. *Apposition* is formed by simply placing words together. 帝堯 *ti Yao*, the Emperor Yao; 文王 *wén wang* = Wen rex, i.e. Wen, who was then king.

VI. It seems natural and is as necessary to the Chinese mind, as it is to ours, to begin a sentence with that part of it which is to form its subject. * In connexion with this point it has to be borne in mind that the first thing we mean to speak of in a sentence, the *psychological subject*, is not always identical with the grammatical subject (our nominative case), as it may fall together with any other part of speech, such as a word denoting time or place, or even the grammatical object, a genitive belonging to the latter, etc. Such words have to be considered as standing outside the syntactical connexion and must be given an *absolute position*. Chinese in this respect resembles French in a phrase like “votre frère, j’ai de ses nouvelles,” etc.

In narrative speech *time* is as a rule mentioned first; *place*, follows and then the *subject* of the action done. 秋七月辛酉叔老卒 *ch’i ch’i-yüeh hsing-yu shu-lao-tsui*, in the autumn during the seventh month, at Sing-yu, Shu-lao died. *Ch’un-ch’i* IX, 12, 3.

VII. If two or more words combine to form one *part of a sentence* they are to be treated syntactically, as *one word*, (generally a noun), though in their relation to each other they retain their mutual dependence. Thus even a complete sentence may be made dependent of a certain preposition, or be dependent as a genitive of a following word: 以綦於禮義故 *i chi yü li i ku*, by cause of “their being bound by rule and law.” This capacity of sentences performing as it were the functions of words, is one of the most important

* China Review, Vol. V, 1877, p. 386.

peculiarities of the language, and a most powerful agent in the expression of thought, both as regards strength and elegance.

VIII. Sentences frequently close with certain particles having an affirmative, interrogative, etc., force: 可乎 *k'o-hu?* *potest-ne? licet-ne?* 可也 *k'o-yeh*, *potest (licet) sane.*

IX. In other respects the position of words in a sentence is not influenced by its relation as a simple or compound, affirmative, interrogative, imperative, etc., clause.

The following remarks will be endorsed by many who have been attempting to parse Chinese sentences, especially in modern documentary prose.

"As a matter of importance in Chinese syntax, we have to mention the frequent *suppression of the grammatical subject*, in lieu of which, according to circumstances, a personal pronoun has to be supplied. Such sentences, though *logically* complete (and therefore intelligible), are grammatically incomplete, and many difficulties arise from this contradiction. The words 不敢 *pu-kan*, not to dare, may, as they stand, be translated as implying the first, second, or third person, singular or plural, or any mood of the verb. The translator who renders them by "I do not dare," or by "he did not dare," or indeed in any other manner, adds some accidental element; he introduces the grammatical relation though it be not contained in the expression. The same remark may be made with regard to the translation of most other grammatical examples considered apart from the context to which they belong." *

In the two divisions following the introductory one, Books II. and III., an exhaustive system of Chinese grammar is constructed on a two-fold basis. The author calls it the Analytical and Synthetic system. In the former an attempt is made to construct an organic building by defining the grammatical

* China Review, Vol. V, 1877, p. 387.

phases of the language, inasmuch as they can be derived from the principles upon which the language is based. These chiefly consist in the rule of position, assisted by auxiliary words the meaning of which is again dependent upon position. The Synthetic system, on the other hand, forming Book III. of the work, may be called the synonymical part of the grammar, inasmuch as it shows what means are at the disposal of the language to express certain ideas.

It would take us too long to enumerate even the main chapters of these two divisions, the methodical arrangement of which, quite apart from the exhaustive material contained in them, throws considerable light on the scientific study of Chinese. In the Analytical part one chapter treats of the position of words and of auxiliaries; another on the definition of the parts of speech. This latter chapter abounds with new ideas and plausible remarks. The principle explained by Julien as the elasticity of Chinese words is detailed in a really scientific manner. A Chinese word may be used as

(a.) A *noun*, when it represents either the subject or the object in a sentence;

(b.) A *verb*, when it represents the predicate,

(c.) An *adverb*, when it is added as a determinative to either a verb or an adjective;

(d.) An *adjective* ("adnominal" word), when it appears as the attribute of a noun or of a part of speech corresponding to a noun.

Another chapter of importance is that on "the division of sentences and clauses," including remarks on the use of rhythm, antithesis, and parallelism for purposes of division. The peculiarity of the written language, the absence of all punctuation causes this point to be of the greatest value to those who wish to understand a Chinese text. Quite a number of words which we are accustomed to treat as empty signs (*Hsü-tze*) perform indeed no other service than that of dividing sentences. Thus 也, 矣, 哉, 焉, etc., are always found at the close of a

sentence; 則, 又, 況, 故, 是以, 今者, etc., are generally placed at the head. I may add that in modern documentary Chinese, many characters may almost be regarded as marks of punctuation. Besides those mentioned by von der Gabelentz, we find as taking the place of quotation marks:—云云, 等因, 等由, etc.; that of a period, all the characters found at the end or at the beginning of a sentence only. The well-known 查 of despatches may in many cases be said to express what printers call a "new paragraph." All the adversative particles such as 詎, 祇, 不期, 不料, 但, 惟, etc., naturally imply what we would often mark by a comma or a semicolon; this applies also to the words separating the main clause from the bye-clause in conditional, causal, concessive, etc., periods, such as 郎, 仍, 再, 而, (after a concessive clause), 輒, and others.

Too much stress cannot be laid upon what we may call a special idiom of the Chinese language,—the power of expressing logical divisions by rhythm, antithesis, and parallelism. Rhythm, which in Western languages is confined to the poetical style, plays, in Chinese, a great part even in the prosiest of prose. An ordinary notice, found on the street corners of a city in Fukien, the most trivial communication to the public, reads like a poem on account of the rhythmical arrangement of its characters. Every clause has a fixed number of characters, say four, five, six, or seven, which is an important assistance in the logical division, coinciding, as a matter of course, with grammatical pauses. Rhythm, antithesis, and parallelism are in many cases the only key to open up passages otherwise quite unintelligible. "By knowing the rules of position," says von der Gabelentz, * "I know what I have to look for at the head, in the middle, and at the close of a sentence. But where can I find the beginning and the end of a sentence? Occasionally certain particles will serve as a

* "Beitrag zur Geschichte der chinesischen Grammatiken," in the Journal of the German Oriental Society, Vol. XXXVII. p. 605.

guide. But what am I to do, if there are none—which often happens? In such cases I run my eye over the text, not caring how many unknown characters it may contain; I discover here a parallelism, there an antithesis, begin to count the number of characters being followed by the same word, and soon find the key is in my hands. You see, the proceeding is as superficial and formal as possible; the sifting of its material part follows afterwards. But what have I done, then? I have simply discovered the stylistic pattern the author has had before his mind when writing; I am beating the time before knowing the tune."

Book III., containing the synthetic system, is mainly built up on the grammatical heads of Western languages, though in a manner widely different from the superficial way in which some writers have attempted to force the Chinese language into the forms of German or French. Unfortunately, such attempts to decline Chinese nouns and to conjugate Chinese verbs (a mistake into which even the great Morrison has fallen in his "Chinese Grammar," the only feeble work he has produced,) has brought the application of a Western method to the study of Chinese into discredit with many. Nevertheless it is, if applied in the general philosophic manner of von der Gabelentz's synthetic system, best adapted to introduce into the secret of Chinese construction all those who have no reason to look back with regret to the grammatical lessons of their college. The terms of Western grammar, it is true, will often mislead by not covering exactly what we wish to say in using them. This is a deficiency which to a small extent applies even to our own languages. The grammatical categories as they were made the basis of our present method of analysing language by the philosophers of the stoic school are in many cases no more than names of accidental phases of the languages. Everybody imagines he has a clear idea of what the term Genitive means, and yet it seems to be only the symbol for some kind of dependency in which one word

may be in relation to another; in *amor filii* and *amor dei* we see genitives of two very different kinds, and yet nobody questions the right of the language to express both by the same form. We are therefore quite free to comprise dependence of different kinds, expressed in Chinese by ante-position, as one phase of the language, and to compare this to the Western genitive, because some or most of the relations expressed by it may, in some or all the languages of Europe, be rendered by that case. It is quite natural, apart from the logical necessity which often suggests comparison with our traditional grammar, that the student trained in Western terminology should declare with Julien that "sans ce langage de convention, il lui serait impossible de traiter, à son point de vue, de la Grammaire chinoise." Western terminology, it must be admitted, does in many cases fail to describe the real logical relation of certain phases of the Chinese language; but this is a deficiency which, on fathoming the bottom of grammatical philosophy, may be said to be inseparable from the English as from any other Western language. It is, however, a great convenience, and indeed, to us the only handle by which we can get hold of certain idioms. It may be as fictitious and may as much depend on a special stand point as the terminology of constellations is fictitious with regard to the real position of the stars; but it is quite as necessary to the writer on grammatical subjects as such terms as Orion, Centaurus or Ursa are to the astronomical student.

F. HIRTH.



REPORT OF THE COUNCIL
OF THE
CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,
FOR THE YEAR 1882.

JOURNAL, NEW SERIES, Vol. XVII. PART 2,
(concluding the volume).

SHANGHAI:

Printed by NORONHA & SONS, No. 12, Canton Road.

1884.



REPORT

OF THE

COUNCIL OF THE CHINA BRANCH

OF THE

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,

FOR THE YEAR 1882.

AT the Annual Meeting, held on the 27th of January, 1882, the following gentlemen were elected Office Bearers for the year:—

- * G. JAMES MORRISON, ESQ., *President.*
- REV. W. MUIRHEAD, }
- JOS. HAAS, ESQ., } *Vice-Presidents.*
- T. S. SOUTHEY, ESQ., *Hon. Sec. & Treasurer.*
- * MAX SLEVOGT, ESQ., *Hon. Librarian.*
- D. C. JANSEN, ESQ., *Hon. Curator.*
- * THOS. W. KINGSMILL, ESQ., }
- P. G. VON MÖLLENDORFF, ESQ., } *Councillors.*
- A. VISSIÈRE, FSQ., }
- A. J. LITTLE, ESQ., }
- E. K. BUTTLES, ESQ., }
- * A. B. STRIPLING, ESQ., }

Three vacancies occurred in the Council during the year, viz: Messrs. Vissière, Buttles, and P. G. von Möllendorff who left Shanghai; these vacancies were filled by Messrs. C. Imbault-Huart, F. Hirth, Ph. D., and K. J. Streich, respectively.

* Re-elected.

Four General Meetings of the Society were held during the year and the following papers were read:—

- 1.—*27th January*, “A Report of the third International Congress at Venice,” by Lieut Kreitner.
- 2.—*31st March*, “Notes on the Geology of the Neighbourhood of Nagasaki,” by H. B. Guppy, M.B., Surgeon R. N.
31st March, “On fresh water on sand banks,” by Capt. F. W. Schulze.
- 3.—*29th August*, “The Hoppo Book of 1753,” by F. Hirth, Ph. D.
- 4.—*7th November*, “On Soochow and the neighbouring country,” by C. Imbault-Huart.

Seventeen Ordinary Members were elected during the year. Five ordinary members resigned. There were on the list of the Society on the 31st December, 1882, fourteen Honorary, twenty-six Corresponding, and one hundred and thirty-five Ordinary Members.

The revised Rules were passed at a General Meeting held on the 7th November and came into force forthwith.

The second part of the Society's Journal for 1881 was issued in March and the first part of the Journal for 1882 in October.

Mention was made in last year's Report of a proposal to re-publish the older Journals now out of print; although a considerable number of members subscribed, the work could not have been undertaken, but for the liberality of Sir Robert Hart, Inspector General of Chinese Customs. It is expected the publications will be issued at an early date.

An appeal made during the course of the year for contributions of articles, was readily responded to by various of the most prominent sinologues. It is to be hoped that this supply will increase and that the learned circles of Peking and Hongkong will not fail to continue to send us the valuable results of their painstaking and highly interesting sinological researches.

The report of the Treasurer and a List of the Members are appended.

Shanghai, 27th February, 1883.

Treasurer's Report.

To the President and Council of the

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

GENTLEMEN,

In accordance with article 20 of the Society's Rules I have now the pleasure of rendering to you an account of the financial condition of the Society.

From the enclosed 'Statement of Accounts' it will be seen that on the 1st of January, 1882, the Society was credited with the sum of \$218 $\frac{15}{100}$, and that during the year the receipts amounted to \$1,050 $\frac{64}{100}$, and consisted of the usual annual subscriptions mentioned in detail on the appended lists, and the income from the sale of Journals. I may mention that \$130 $\frac{00}{100}$ has been received for duplicate volumes of the Chinese Repository sold to the German Legation at Peking.

Subscriptions collected represent the sum of \$780 against \$650 received on the previous year. Taking into consideration the movements and shifting about of resident and non-resident members this is very encouraging, as it shows the interest taken in the welfare of the Society.

Although the income has been in excess of former years, yet on the other hand the expenditure has been unusually heavy, amounting as it does to \$1,148 $\frac{13}{100}$, and of this sum \$1,053 $\frac{43}{100}$ has been paid out, showing a balance of \$120 $\frac{66}{100}$ which has been duly lodged in the Hongkong & Shanghai

Bank; but it must be understood that out of this credit balance, the sum of \$94 $\frac{7}{10}$ has to be deducted in payment of Messrs. Noronha & Sons' outstanding account.

The cost of printing Reports, circulars &c. has amounted to \$133; but perhaps I should explain that the printing of Lieut. Kreitner's paper has been included under this heading, and that we have a sufficient number of copies of the revised rules to supply new members for some years yet to come.

Remittances from the Booksellers, for sale of Journals, have not up to moment, come to hand.

Uncollected subscriptions from non-resident members amount to \$290.00, but it is not anticipated that these arrears will bring in more than about \$150.00.

After this date the Society will receive a rent of Tls. 100 per annum from the Shanghai Library.

In accordance with the revised rules which came into force during the year under review, the institution for Life membership has been introduced.

Your Treasurer has to regret that at the present time none of the paying members have availed themselves of that benefit, which perhaps may be accounted for by the short time that has elapsed since the Rules have been issued.

With regard to the Museum, the accounts will show a credit balance of \$100 $\frac{1}{10}$ on 31st December 1882, which sum has been lodged in the Hongkong & Shanghai Bank.

The receipts have consisted of the usual liberal grants made by the English and French Municipal Councils and of the very acceptable donation of \$20 from Mgr. Delaplace.

The expenditure has been greater than in previous years, chiefly in consequence of higher wages paid to the Taxidermist.

During the month of February the Council have decided to increase his salary to \$10.00 a month, provided that he devotes the whole of his time solely for the benefit of the institute: heretofore the Taxidermist had been allowed the privilege of undertaking outside work.

The Treasurer has to regret that he has been unable to pay interest on the money borrowed from the Committee of the Recreation Fund in 1875, but it is hoped the funds will admit of interest being paid at the end of the present year.

I am, Gentlemen,

Your obedient Servant,

T. S. SOUTHEY,

Hon. Treasurer, C. B. of R.A.S.

Shanghai, 31st January, 1883.



CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1882.

RECEIPTS		EXPENDITURE.	
	\$		\$
To Balance from last Account	218	By Printing Reports, Circulars &c.	133
" Dr. Guppy's balance of subscription	50	" Book-binding	90
" Subscriptions for the year 1879.	5	" Advertising for 1881	12
" " " 1880.	25	" " 1882	56
" " " 1881.	55	" Freight and Insurance on Journals & Books ...	29
" " " 1882.	695	" Fire Insurance :—	97
" Sale of Journals	780	Books Tls. 2,500 at $\frac{1}{2}$ per % Tls. 12.50	17
" " Duplicates of Chinese Repository.	84	Journals " 2,000 " % " 10.00	13
" " Gas Meter	130	" Book Case	45
" Dr. Bretschneider's share of freight on books ...	20	" Printing Journals for 1881, part II	60
" Rent of room to S'hai Young Men's Institute ...	5	" " " 1882, " I on account	410
" Interest on current account with H. & S. Bank ...	25	" Wood Cuts and Lithograph for Journals 1882	250
	5	" Postage and Stationery	45
		" Postage on Journals	19
		" Kelly & Walsh, Commission on collecting sub- scriptions at Hongkong	82
		" Municipal and other Taxes	21
		" Gas	05
		" Sundries	75
		" Balance	8
			42
			5
			59
			20
			80
			120
			66
	1,268		1268
	79		79

E. & O. E.

*Audited and found correct,*T. S. SOUTHEY,
Hon. Treasurer.

JOSEPH HAAS.

ALFRED B. STRIPLING.

SHANGHAI MUSEUM.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1882.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
	\$		\$
To Balance from last Account	114	By Shanghai Library, Rent to Dec. 31 1882 Tls. 150	205
" Grant from English Municipal Council Tls. 500	00	" Taxidermist's wages, 1 month, at \$20 ...\$ 20	360
" " " " " 100		" " " 11 " " 30 ... 330	60
" " " " " Tls. 600	816	" " " 12 " " 5	10
" Donation from Mgr. Delaplace.....	20	" New Year's Gift to Taxidermist	68
" Interest on Current Account with H. & S. Bank	5	" Desk Table, Tls. 50.00	25
		" 5 Copper tanks	24
		" Spirits for preserving specimens	38
		" Glass holders, tubes and stands for same	40
		" Fire Insurance on Contents, Tls. 1,000 at $\frac{1}{2}$ per % Tls. 5.00	25
		" Cases and Specimens of Fish	6
		" Coal	85
		" Stationery for the year 1881	3
		" Books and Advertising.....	3
		" Sundries	45
		" Municipal and other Taxes	9
		" Balance lodged in H. & S. Bank	55
			6
			35
			00
			8
			42
			100
			91
			936
			01

E. & O. E.

T. S. SOUTHEY,
*Hon. Treasurer.*Audited and found correct,
JOSEPH HAAS.
ALFRED B. STRIPLING.

LIST OF MEMBERS,

Corrected up to 31st December, 1883.

HONORARY.

His Majesty LEOPOLD II., King of the Belgians.

Alcock, Sir Rutherford, K.C.B., London.
Hart, Sir Robert, K.C.M.G., Peking.
Legge, Rev. J., D.D., L.L.D., Oxford.
Medhurst, Sir Walter H., K.C.B., London.
Parkes, Sir Harry S., K.C.B., K.C.M.G., Peking.
Prejevalsky, Col. N., St. Petersburg.
Richthofen, Baron Ferdinand von, Leipzig.
Seward, The Hon. George F., U.S.
Shadwell, Admiral Sir Charles F. A., K.C.B., Melksham, Wilts.
Wade, Sir Thomas F., K.C.B., London.
Williams, Rev. S. Wells, L.L.D., New Haven, U.S.
Wylie, Alex., Esq., London.
Yule, Col. H., C.B., London.

CORRESPONDING.

Bastian, Prof. Dr. A., Berlin.
Bretschneider, E., Esq., M.D., St. Petersburg.
Cox, Rev. Josiah.
Delaplace, Mgr. L. G., Peking.
Edkins, Rev. J., D.D., Peking.
Fritzsche, H., Esq., PH. D., St. Petersburg.
Fryer, John, Esq., Shanghai.
Giles, Herbert A., Esq.
Gordon, Col. C. G., C.B.
Hance, H. F., Esq., PH. D., Whampoa.
Happer, Rev. A. P., D.D., Canton.
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Rondot, Natalis, Esq., Lyons.
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Széchényi, Count Béla, Zinkendorf, Hungary.
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* Elected since issue of last list of members (April, 1882).

† Life Member.

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- Imbault-Huart, C., Esq.
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- Johnson, F. B., Esq.
- Johnston, J., Esq., M.D.
- Kingsmill, T. W., Esq.
- Kleinwächter, F., Esq.
- Kleinwächter, G. H. J., Esq.
- Kopsch, H., Esq.
- Krauss, A., Esq.
- Krey, W., Esq.
- Little, A. J., Esq.
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- Maignan, H., Esq.
- Mann, James, Esq., M.D.
- * Mertx, C., Esq., Ph. D.
- Möllendorff, O. F. von, Esq.,
Ph. D.
- Möllendorff, P. G. von, Esq.
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- Parker, E. H., Esq.
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- Vissière, A., Esq.
- Washbrook, W. A., Esq.
- Watters, T., Esq.
- Wetmore, W. S., Esq.
- White, F. W., Esq.
- Wicking, H., Esq.
- Wilcox, R. C., Esq.
- * Wilson, J. H., Esq.
- Wood, A. G., Esq.
- Youd, F., Esq.

MEMBERS OF THE COUNCIL,

Corrected up to 31st December, 1883.

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JOS. HAAS, Esq.,
F. HIRTH, Esq., PH. D. } *Vice-Presidents.*

T. S. SOUTHEY, Esq., *Hon. Sec. & Treasurer.*

E. ROBINSON, Esq., *Hon. Librarian.*

J. H. WILSON, Esq., *Hon. Curator of Museum.*

G. JAMES MORRISON, Esq.
THOS. W. KINGSMILL, Esq.
M. SLEVOGT, Esq.,
C. DEIGHTON BRAYSHER, Esq. } *Councillors.*

REVISED RULES
OF THE
CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Instituted 24th September, 1857.

Passed at a General Meeting held on the 7th November, 1882.

I.—NAME AND OBJECTS.

1. The Name of the Society shall be "THE CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY," instead of, as formerly, THE NORTH-CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.
2. The objects of the Society shall be—
The investigation of subjects connected with China and the neighbouring countries.
The holding of Meetings at which papers relating to such subjects shall be read and discussed.
The issuing of a Journal and other publications.
The maintenance of a Library and Museum.

II.—MEMBERSHIP.

3. The Society shall consist of "MEMBERS," "CORRESPONDING MEMBERS," and "HONORARY MEMBERS."
4. Each Candidate for election as a MEMBER must be proposed and seconded by two Members of the Society, and his

name together with those of his proposer and seconder must be sent to the Secretary who will submit the proposal to the COUNCIL at their next Meeting. The COUNCIL shall decide upon the admission or rejection of Candidates, and the names of those elected shall be announced at the GENERAL MEETING next ensuing.

5. HONORARY MEMBERS and CORRESPONDING MEMBERS must be proposed by the Council at a GENERAL MEETING, and elected at the GENERAL MEETING next ensuing.

6. The Secretary shall send to each newly elected Member of the Society (of any class) a Certificate of Membership together with a copy of the Rules of the Society and a List of Members.

7. The Subscriptions to the Society shall be as follows—

MEMBERS, resident in Shanghai.....\$10 per annum.

„ non-resident „\$ 5 „ „

Any of the above subscriptions may be compounded for by one payment of \$50.

HONORARY MEMBERS and CORRESPONDING MEMBERS pay no subscription.

8. The first annual payment of MEMBERS elected in November and December shall be considered to extend to the *second* 31st of December following their election.

9. Resident MEMBERS, on leaving Shanghai, may have their names transferred to the class of non-residents; but any Member who remains in Shanghai for six months during any year shall pay his subscription as a resident MEMBER.

10. All subscriptions shall be payable in advance, and any MEMBER whose subscription for any year is unpaid on the 30th of June of the following year shall be considered to have resigned his membership; but this rule may be suspended in any particular case by a vote of the COUNCIL.

11. MEMBERS desiring to withdraw from the Society shall continue to be liable for any sums due by them to the Society including their annual subscription for the year in which they signify their intention to withdraw.

III.—OFFICERS.

12. The Officers of the Society shall be—

A President,

A Senior and a Junior Vice-President,

An Honorary Secretary,

An Honorary Treasurer,

An Honorary Librarian,

An Honorary Curator,

but any one Officer may perform the duties attaching to two offices.

IV.—COUNCIL.

13. The COUNCIL shall consist of the Officers of the Society for the current year, and four Members of Council.

14. The Officers and Members of Council for the current year shall be elected at the ANNUAL MEETING and shall hold office until the next ANNUAL MEETING; but vacancies among the officers or Members of Council occurring during the year shall be filled up by a vote of the remaining Officers and Members of Council, provided that in case of the death of the President his functions shall be discharged by the Senior Vice-President until the next ANNUAL MEETING, or in case of the President's absence until his return.

15. The Duties of the COUNCIL shall be—

To administer the affairs, property, and trusts of the Society.

To decide upon the admission of Candidates as "MEMBERS."

To propose HONORARY MEMBERS and CORRESPONDING MEMBERS for election.

To decide upon the eligibility of papers to be read before the General Meetings.

To select papers for publication in the Journal and to supervise the printing and distribution thereof.

To select and purchase books, specimens, &c., for the Library and Museum.

To accept or decline donations or gifts on behalf of the Society.

To present to the Society at the expiration of their term of office Reports of the proceedings and condition of the various departments, and of the Society generally.

And generally, to do such things as may be required for the welfare and proper management of the Society, and to make and enforce such bye-laws as may be necessary for carrying out the above requirements.

16. The COUNCIL shall meet for the transaction of business once a month, or oftener, if necessary, and at all such Meetings five shall be a *quorum*. In case of an equality of votes on any question the Chairman of the Meeting shall have a second or casting vote.

17. The Hon. Treasurer may pay the monthly Museum account, which must be signed by the Hon. Curator, and he may on his own authority pay any incidental expenses not exceeding fifty dollars between any two Council Meetings, reporting the same to the COUNCIL at their next Meeting.

18. As early as possible in each year, and in any case before the 31st January, the Hon. Treasurer shall prepare and submit to the COUNCIL statements of the Receipts and Disbursements of the Society for the preceeding year, ending on the 31st December, and in such statements the receipts and

disbursements on account of the Museum shall be kept distinct from the other receipts and disbursements.

V.—MEETINGS.

19. The ANNUAL MEETING shall be held as early in each year as practicable, and in any case not later than the 15th February. At this Meeting the outgoing COUNCIL shall present to the Society the Report and financial statements of the Hon. Treasurer, and the Reports of the various departments prepared by the Officers having control of them; and the officers and Members of Council for the ensuing year shall be elected.

20. GENERAL MEETINGS shall be held, when practicable, once a month, or oftener, if expedient, for the transaction of business, the reading and discussing of papers approved by the COUNCIL, and conversation on topics connected with the general objects of the Society. Whenever practicable, notice of the subjects intended to be introduced for discussion by any Member of the Society shall be handed to the Secretary before the Meeting.

21. At all Meetings of the Society the Chairman shall be entitled to a second or casting vote.

22. Visitors may be admitted to the Meetings of the Society, but no visitor shall be allowed to address the Meeting, except by invitation of the Chairman.

VI.—PUBLICATIONS.

23. A Journal shall be published, when practicable, every year under the supervision of the COUNCIL. It shall comprise a selection of the papers read before the Society, the Reports of the COUNCIL, of the Hon. Treasurer and other Officers of the Society, and such other original matter as the COUNCIL shall deem expedient to publish.

24. Every MEMBER who has paid his subscription for the current year, and every HONORARY MEMBER and CORRESPONDING MEMBER shall be entitled to a copy of the Journal for the year, deliverable at the place of issue, and to a copy of other publications directed for distribution.

25. The COUNCIL shall have power to present copies of the Journal and of other publications to other Societies and to distinguished individuals, and the remaining copies shall be sold at such prices as the COUNCIL may from time to time direct.

26. Twenty copies of each paper published in the Journal shall be placed at the disposal of the Author, and the COUNCIL shall have power to sanction the publication in a separate form of papers or documents laid before the Society.

27. All papers accepted by the Society shall become the property of the Society, unless the Council allow the right of property to be specially reserved by the contributors.

VII.—AMENDMENTS.

28. Amendments to these Rules must be proposed in writing to the COUNCIL who shall, after notice given, lay them before a General Meeting of the Society. A Committee of resident MEMBERS shall thereupon be appointed in conjunction with the Council to report on the proposed Amendments to the GENERAL MEETING next ensuing, when a decision may be taken.

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

(Founded 1857.)

- I.—RULES *for the issue of Books from the Library.*
- II.—LIST OF ADDITIONS *to the Library for the six months ending 30th June, 1881.*
- III.—LIST OF SOCIETIES, PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS, ETC.
exchanging Publications with the Society.

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

RULES

*for the issue of Books from the Library.**

- RULE I.—The Library is open daily from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 4 to 7.30 p.m., Sundays and holidays excepted.
- RULE II.—The circulation of the books is under the control of the Committee of the Shanghai Library.
- RULE III.—Books are issued by the Librarian of the Shanghai Library only. Members are not allowed to pass them from one to another, nor to lend them to non-members.
- RULE IV.—Members are not to have more than *three* works at a time, nor keep any books longer than 21 days.
- RULE V.—Works of reference and certain rare and valuable books are not to be taken out of the Library Building, nor are Scientific Journals and Periodicals circulated until the volumes are completed and bound.
- RULE VI.—When the time allowed for the perusal of a work has expired, it must be returned to the Library within 24 hours after the receipt of a notice that it is required at the Library, or a fine of half a dollar per day will be exacted.
- RULE VII.—Members are responsible for the careful preservation and safe return of all books issued to them, and they will be required to make good any loss or damage in these respects.

* The Library is in charge of Mr. and Mrs. GALE, Librarians to the Shanghai Library, Upper Yüen-ming-yüen Road, No. 1. Periodicals and new books received by the Society are exhibited in the Reading Room of the Shanghai Library.

RULE VIII.—If a work or any portion of it should be lost or damaged, defaced by writing or otherwise injured, the member to whom it was issued will be responsible for its whole cost whatever that may be.

RULE IX.—The infraction of any of these rules will be followed by the withdrawal from a member of his privilege of taking books out of the Library, and the payment of all penalties or other amounts due will be enforced in any way that may be thought fit.

RULE X.—The Council of the North-China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society may at any time call in all books and may cease to issue them for such periods as the interests of the Society may require.

For the purposes of rules IV and VI, each volume of the Transactions of any Learned Society or similar publication shall be counted as one work, but under rule VIII a member may be called upon to replace a whole series unless the volumes can be obtained separately.

*List of Works added to the Library of the North-China
Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, during
the six months ending 30th June, 1881.*

I. Transactions of Learned Societies and Periodical Publications.

- 839.—STATISTICAL SOCIETY (LONDON).
Journal, 8vo. Vol. XLII., 1879.
- 840.—ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY (LONDON).
Proceedings, 8vo. Vol. XXI., 1876-77.
do. New Series, Vol. I., 1879.
- 846.—SOCIÉTÉ DE GÉOGRAPHIE (PARIS).
Bulletin, 8vo. VI. Series, Vol. XIX., 1880.
do. do. Vol. XX., „
- 851.—DEUTSCHE MORGENLÄNDISCHE GESELLSCHAFT (LEIPZIG).
Zeitschrift, 8vo. Vol. XXXIII., 1879.
- 852.—VEREIN FÜR ERDKUNDE ZU DRESDEN.
Jahresberichte, 8vo. Vols. XVI-XVII., 1878-80.
- 870.—K. PREUSSISCHE AKADEMIE DER WISSENSCHAFTEN ZU BERLIN.
Monatsberichte, 8vo. 1874.
do. do. 1880.
- 873.—ORIENTALISCHES MUSEUM (VIENNA).
Oesterreichische Monatsschrift für den Orient, 4to. Vol. V., 1879.
- 879.—R. ACCADEMIA DEI LINCEI (ROME).
Atti, Serie III., Transunti, 4to. Vol. IV., 1879-80.
- 879A.—JUSTUS PERTHES' GEOGRAPHISCHE ANSTALT (GOTHA).
Dr. A. Petermann's Mittheilungen, 4to. Vol. XXVI., 1880.
- 879B.—FRANKFURTER VEREIN FÜR GEOGRAPHIE UND STATISTIK.
Jahresbericht, 8vo. Vols. XXXVII-XLV., 1872-80.
- 879C.—VEREIN FÜR ERDKUNDE ZU METZ.
Jahresbericht, 8vo. Vols. I-II., 1878-79.
- 880.—AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY (NEW HAVEN).
Journal, 8vo. Vol. X., 1880.

- 895.—NORTH-CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY (SHANGHAI)
Journal, 8vo. New Series, Vol. XIV., 1879.
A Catalogue of the Library of the North-China Branch of the
Royal Asiatic Society, (including the Library of Alex. Wylie,
Esq.), systematically classed. By HENRI CORDIER. Shanghai,
1872, 8vo.
A Catalogue of the Library of the North-China Branch of the
Royal Asiatic Society, (including the Library of Alex. Wylie,
Esq.), systematically classed. Shanghai, 1881, 8vo.
- 899.—ASIATIC SOCIETY OF JAPAN (YOKOHAMA).
Transactions, 8vo. Vol. VIII., 1879-80.
- 909.—THE CHINESE RECORDER AND MISSIONARY JOURNAL.
Shanghai, 8vo. Vols. VII-XI., 1876-80.
- 914.—STATISTICAL DEPARTMENT, IMP. MARITIME CUSTOMS (SHANGHAI).
Returns of Trade at the Treaty Ports for the year 1880: Part II.
Statistics of the Trade at each Port. Shanghai: 1881, 4to.
- 918.—STATISTICAL DEPARTMENT, IMP. MARITIME CUSTOMS (SHANGHAI).
Returns of Trade at the Treaty Ports for the year 1880: Part I.
Abstract of Trade and Customs Revenue Statistics. Shanghai:
1881, 4to.
- 920A.—THE CHINA REVIEW: or, Notes and Queries on the Far East.
Hongkong, 8vo. Vols. IV-VIII., 1875-80.
- 920B.—Translation of the Peking Gazette for 1878. Reprinted from the
"North-China Herald." Shanghai: 1879, 8vo.
- 920C.—THE FAR EAST. A monthly Journal, illustrated with Photographs.
Edited by J. R. BLACK. New Series, Vols. I-II., 1776-77, bound
in 1. Shanghai: 4to. (*Without the Photographs*).
- NOTE.—*Periodical Publications are announced in the List of Accessions as soon
as a volume is completed.*

II. Miscellaneous Works.

- 19A.—The Religions of China. Confucianism and Táoism described and
compared with Christianity, by JAMES LEGGE. London: Hodder,
1880, 8vo.

By the Author.

- 43A.—The works of Confucius: Containing the original text with a trans-
lation. Vol. I., to which is prefixed a dissertation on the Chinese
language and character, by J. MARSHMAN. Serampore: Mission
Press, 1809, 4to. 1 Vol. (the only one published) bound in 2.

By D. C. Jansen, Esq.

- 70A.—Die Bevölkerung der Erde. Jährliche Übersicht über neue Arealberechnungen, Gebietsveränderungen, Zählungen und Schätzungen der Bevölkerung auf der gesammten Erdoberfläche. Herausgegeben von E. BEHM und H. WAGNER. Vol. VI. Gotha: Perthes, 1880, 4to.

By the Publisher.

- 128.—Report of the Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey, showing the progress of the work for the fiscal year ending with June, 1877. Washington: 1880, 4to.

By the U. S. Coast Survey Office.

- 139.—Anales del Ministerio de Fomento de la República Mexicana. Tomo III. Mexico: 1880, 8vo.

By the Ministerio de Fomento.

- 204A.—A Grammar of the Hindustani Language. By JOHN SHAKESPEAR. London: Cox, 4to. (No title page).

By D. C. Jansen, Esq.

- 236A.—An Index to Dr. Williams' "Syllabic Dictionary of the Chinese Language." Arranged according to Sir Thomas Wade's System of Orthography. By JAMES ACHESON. Hongkong and Shanghai: Kelly & Walsh, 1879, 8vo.

By the Author.

- 242A.—Deutsch-Chinesisches Conversationsbuch nach Joseph Edkins' "Progressive Lessons in the Chinese spoken language," übersetzt, erläutert und theilweise umgearbeitet von JOSEPH HAAS. Shanghai: Mission Press, 1870, 8vo.

By the Author.

- 287A.—The Firagana, or Japanese Running-hand Writing. A Review of its most usual forms with addition of the Chinese Characters from which they are derived. By J. HOFFMANN. 2nd Ed. Leyden: Sythoff, 1861 (1 Sheet).

By Joseph Haas, Esq.

- 329A.—Die Verwandlungen des Abu Seid von Serug oder die Makamen des Hariri von FRIEDRICH RÜCKERT. 6. Aufl. Stuttgart: Cotta, 1878, 12mo.

Presented.

- 474A.—FR. SCHMIDT'S, P. v. GLEHN'S und A. D. BRYL'KIN'S Reisen im Gebiete des Amurstromes und auf der Insel Sachalin (Beiträge zur Kenntniss des russischen Reiches, Vol. XXV). St. Petersburg: 1868, 8vo.

By Thomas Hanbury, Esq.

599A.—Report on the Irrawaddy River, by R. GORDON. Rangoon: 1879-80, fcp. 3 vols. bd. in 1. With an Atlas of 31 Plates.

By the Public Works Dept., Br. Burma.

741A.—A Retrospect of Political and Commercial Affairs in China during the five years 1873 to 1877. Edited by R. S. GUNDRY. Shanghai: N.-C. Herald Office, 1878. 8vo.

Presented.

741B.—China. Ergebnisse eigener Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien von FERDINAND FREIHERRN VON RICHTHOFEN. Erster Band. Einleitender Theil. Berlin: Reimer, 1877, 4to.

By the Author.

764A.—The Treaty Illegality of the Transit Dues and Leking Taxes actually levied by the Chinese Government. By THOMAS T. FERGUSON. Shanghai: N.-C. Herald Office, 1876, 8vo.

Presented.

764B.—The Great Famine: Report of the China Famine Relief Committee. Shanghai: 1879, 8vo.

Presented.

764C.—Treaties between the United States of America and China, Japan, Lewchew and Siam, Acts of Congress, and the Attorney-General's opinion, with the decrees and regulations issued for the guidance of U. S. Consular Courts in China. Published by Authority. Hongkong: 1862, 8vo.

Presented.

812A.—The Tagores of Calcutta. Reprinted from the "Indian Mirror." Calcutta: 1880, 8vo.

By Dr. S. M. Tagore.

832.—A General Catalogue of Books, arranged in classes, offered for sale by BERNARD QUARITCH. London: 1868, 8vo.

By E. Toda, Esq.

836A.—Bibliotheca Orientalis or a complete list of Books, Papers, Serials and Essays, published in England and the Colonies, Germany and France, on the History, Languages, Religions, Antiquities and Literature of the East. Compiled by CHARLES FRIEDERICI Leipzig: Schulze, 8vo.

Vol. I-III, 1876-78 (including also Geography).

„ IV, 1879.

Purchased.

836B.—Vierteljahrs-Catalog aller neuen Erscheinungen im Felde der Literatur in Deutschland. Nach den Wissenschaften geordnet. Vol. XXXV., 1880. Leipzig: Hinrichs, 8vo.

Presented.

*Missing Works returned to the Library after
completion of Catalogue.*

- 240A.—Chinese Dialogues, Questions, and Familiar Sentences, literally rendered into English, with a view to promote Commercial Inter-course, and to assist beginners in the language. By the late REV. DR. MEDHURST. Revised by his son. Shanghai: London Mission Press, 1863, 8vo.
- 240B.—Ji-Tch'ang-K'eu-T'eu-Hoa. Dialogues Chinois à l'usage de l'Ecole spéciale des Langues orientales vivantes publiés avec une traduction et un vocabulaire chinois-français de tous les mots par M. STANISLAS JULIEN. I. Partie: Texte chinois. Paris: Duprat, 1863, 8vo.
- 399A.—Souvenirs d'un Voyage dans la Tartarie et le Thibet pendant les années 1844, 1845 et 1846 par M. HUC, Ancien Missionnaire Apostolique. 3. Ed., 2 vols., 12mo. Paris: Gaume, 1857.
- 420A.—An authentic Account of an Embassy from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China;.....together with a Relation of the Voyage undertaken on the occasion.....taken chiefly from the Papers of.....the Earl of Macartney.....Sir Erasmus Gowerby SIR GEORGE STAUNTON, BART. London: G. Nicol, 1797, 2 vols., 4to. With Folio Atlas.
- 583A.—Hedendaegsche Historie, of Tegenwoordige Staet van alle volkern:erst in 't Engelsch beschreven door TH. SALMON; Nu vertaelt en merkelyk vermeerdert door M. van Goch, M. D. I. Deel. (China, Japan, etc.) Amsterdam: Tirion, 1729, 8vo.
- 716A.—Reports on Amoy and the Island of Formosa, by C. W. LE GENDRE. Washington: 1871, 8vo.
- 740A.—Illustrations of China and its People. A Series of 200 Photographs, with letterpress descriptive of the places and people represented. By J. THOMSON. London: Sampson Low, 1873-74, 4 vols., roy. folio.

NOTE.—In the new Edition of the Catalogue (published 1881) two numbers are prefixed to each volume, but, in procuring works from the Library, members are requested to use the OUTSIDE-NUMBERS only, which will be found to run through from No. 1 to No. 991.

IN PREPARATION:—A Catalogue of the Museum Library of the North-China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society (comprising the works on Natural History).

Shanghai, 1st July, 1881.

M. SLEVOGT,
Hon. Librarian,
North-China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.

*List of Societies, Public Institutions, etc. exchanging
Publications with the Society.*

ASIA.

- BATAVIA. Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen.
CALCUTTA. Asiatic Society of Bengal.
COLOMBO. Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.
HONGKONG. China Review.
SHANGHAI. Statistical Department, Imperial Maritime Customs.
Observatoire Magnétique et Météorologique de Zi-Ka-Wei,
Chinese Recorder and Missionary Journal.
SINGAPORE. Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.
YOKOHAMA. Asiatic Society of Japan.
Deutsche Gesellschaft f. Natur—und Völkerkunde Ostasiens.

EUROPE.

Great Britain and Ireland.

- EDINBURGH. Royal Society.
LONDON. Geological Society.
London and China Express.
Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland.
Royal Geographical Society.
Royal Society of Great Britain and Ireland.
Statistical Society.
Trübner's American, European, and Oriental Record.
Zoological Society.

Germany and Austria.

- BERLIN. K. Preussische Akademie der Wissenschaften.
Gesellschaft für Erdkunde.
DRESDEN. Verein für Erdkunde.
GOTHA. Justus Perthes' Geographische Anstalt.
HALLE. Verein für Erdkunde.
KÖNIGSBERG. K. Physikalisch-Ökonomische Gesellschaft.
LEIPZIG. Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft.
Literaturblatt für Orientalische Philologie.
MUNICH. K. Bayerische Akademie der Wissenschaften.
VIENNA. Deutsche Rundschau f. Geographie und Statistik.
K. K. Geographische Gesellschaft.
K. K. Geologische Reichsanstalt.
K. K. Zoologisch-Botanische Gesellschaft.
Orientalisches Museum.

France.

PARIS. Revue Critique d'Histoire et de Littérature.
Société Asiatique.
Société d'Acclimatation.
Société de Géographie.

Italy.

FLORENCE. R. Istituto di Studi Superiôri (Accademia Orientale).
ROME. R. Accademia dei Lincei.
TURIN. Cosmos.

Netherlands.

S' GRAVENHAGE. K. Instituut voor de Taal—, Land—, en Volkenkunde
van Nederlandsch Indië.

Russia.

ST. PETERSBURG. Imperatorskoye Rousskoye Gheographitcheskoye
Obstchestvo.

AMERICA.

CAMBRIDGE. Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College.
MEXICO. Ministerio de Fomento.
NEW HAVEN. American Oriental Society.
PHILADELPHIA. American Philosophical Society.
SALEM. Essex Institute.
WASHINGTON. Smithsonian Institution.
United States Coast Survey.
United States Department of Agriculture.
United States Geogr. Survey W. of the 100th Meridian.



JOURNAL
OF THE
NORTH-CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

FOR THE YEAR 1883.

NEW SERIES, Vol. XVIII.

Agents for the Sale of the Society's Publications:

SHANGHAI AND HONGKONG.—MESSRS. KELLY & WALSH.

YOKOHAMA.—MESSRS. KELLY & CO.

LONDON.—MESSRS. TRÜBNER & CO., 57 AND 59, LUDGATE HILL.

PARIS.—M. ERNEST LEROUX, RUE BONAPARTE, 28.

SHANGHAI:
Printed by NORONHA & SONS.

1884.



CONTENTS.

	<i>Page.</i>
Report of the Council of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society for the year 1888	I
Treasurer's Report and Accounts	IV
Librarian's Report	VII
Curator's Report	VIII
List of Birds represented in the Shanghai Museum	XI
ARTICLE I.—What did the ancient Chinese know of the Greeks and Romans. By JOSEPH EDKINS, D.D.	1
ARTICLE II.—Corea—Extracts from Mr. F. SCHERZER's French trans- lation of the <i>Chao-hsien-chih</i> , and Biographical Notice. Translated into English, by CHARLES GOULD	25
ARTICLE III.—Researches into the Geology of Formosa. By GEORGE H. J. KLEINWÄCHTER	37
ARTICLE IV.—Fragments d'un Voyage dans l'intérieur de la Chine. Par C. IMBAULT-HUART	55
ARTICLE V.—Some Notes of a Trip to Corea in July and August 1883. by G. JAMES MORRISON	141
ARTICLE VI.—Notes on some Dikes at the mouth of the Nankow Pass. By H. B. GUPPY, M.B.	159
ARTICLE VII.—Samshu-Brewing in North-China. By M. B. GUPPY, M.B.	163
ARTICLE VIII.—Notes on Szechuen and the Yangtse Valley. By ARCHIBALD J. LITTLE	165

APPENDICES

List of Members, corrected up to 30th September, 1884;—	<i>Page.</i>
Honorary	185
Corresponding	186
Members	187
Members of the Council, 30th September 1884	189
Revised Rules of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society Instituted 24th September 1857	190
Rules for the issue of Books from the Library	196



REPORT

OF THE

COUNCIL OF THE CHINA BRANCH

OF THE

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,

FOR THE YEAR 1883.

At the Annual Meeting held on the 27th February 1883, the following gentlemen were elected Office Bearers for the year:—

E. B. DREW, Esq.,	<i>President.</i>	
JOS. HAAS, Esq.,	} <i>Vice-Presidents.</i>	
F. HIRTH, Esq., Ph. D.		
T. S. SOUTHEY, Esq.,	<i>Hon. Sec. and Treasurer.</i>	
E. ROBINSON, Esq.,	<i>Hon. Librarian.</i>	
H. L. SMITH, Esq., M.D.,	<i>Hon. Curator of Museum.</i>	
G. JAMES MORRISON, Esq.,	} <i>Councillors.</i>	
THO. W. KINGSMILL, Esq.,		
M. SLEVOGT, Esq.,		
C. DEIGHTON-BRAYSHER, Esq.,		

During the month of November, Dr. H. L. Smith resigned the curatorship of the Museum, owing to his departure from Shanghai; the vacancy was filled by Mr. J. W. Wilson.

Six general meetings of the Society were held during the year, and the following papers were read:—

- 1.—*9th January*, “What did the Ancient Chinese know about Rome and Greece?” By Dr. J. Edkins.
- 2.—*27th February*, “A Corean Manuscript of the 17th Century, relating to the manners and customs of that Country.” Translated by Monsieur F. Scherzer.

- 3.—*17th April*, "Researches into the Physical Geography and Geology of Formosa." By Mr. G. H. J. Kleinwächter.
- 4.—*8th November*, "The Relative Claims of Buddhism and Confucianism to be considered the Religion of China, and the number of Buddhists in the World." By the Rev. A. P. Happer, D.D.
- 5.—*22nd November*, "Some Notes of a trip to Corea in July and August, 1883." By Mr. G. James Morrison.
- 6.—*3rd December*, "Notes on a recent journey to Szechuen, and on the leading geological features of the Yangtse Valley." By Mr. A. J. Little.

One corresponding member, and nine ordinary members were elected during the year; six members resigned.

There were on the list of the Society on the 31st December 1883, 14 honorary, 27 corresponding, and 138 ordinary members.

The Council regret having to record the death of two members, viz: Mr. A. Sim who died at Shanghai on the 18th January, and Mr. E. P. Hague who died at Cannes on the 8th December.

It is worthy of note that the meetings of 1883 were better attended, and greater interest evinced in the papers that were read than has been the case for some time past.

Of the three volumes to be re-printed, one is completed and will be sent out to subscribers and exchanges immediately. The re-printing of the remaining two volumes has not yet been commenced, as the printers were fully occupied with the Journal for 1883, but the Council are now endeavouring to make such arrangements as will enable them to complete at an early date the re-publication of the two volumes out of print, without interference with the publication of the annual volumes. The Council have to apologise for the late appearance of the Report for 1882, which is now ready for distribution. The first part of the Journal for 1883 is nearly completed and

the Council are glad to report that they have sufficient papers in hand to commence at once with the printing of the Journal.

Subjoined are the Treasurer's, and the Librarian's Reports.¹

1.—A Report by the Curator, prepared in September 1884, will also be found subjoined to the reports named above.—*Editorial Committee.*

Treasurer's Report.

To the President and Council of the

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,
Gentlemen,

I have much pleasure in rendering an account of the financial condition of the Society for the year 1883 now ended.

From the enclosed "Statement of Receipts and Expenditure," it will be seen that on the 1st January 1883, the Society was credited with the sum of \$120.66, and that during the year the receipts amounted to \$861.29, and were derived from the usual annual subscriptions, sale of Journals, rent from the Shanghai Library, etc. The expenditure amounted to \$723.52; and the balance added to the amount brought over from last account leaves the sum of \$258.43 in favor of the Society on the 31st December 1883.

I may mention that under the heading "Expenditure" the sum of \$94.70, paid to Messrs. Noronha & Sons for printing, stood over from last year's account, and that \$96.41 have been paid out in repairs to the premises.

The cost of re-printing Journal Vol. V., of 1868, which amounted to \$379.60 is a large item in the expenditure, but a portion of this sum will be refunded later on or as soon as the Hon. Librarian has collected the subscriptions for re-printing those journals now out of print.

With regard to the Museum, the accounts will show that the sum of \$106.62 stands to its credit on the 31st December 1883. I regret that the funds have admitted of only one year's interest on the loan borrowed from the Recreation Fund being paid, as the interest to date is still three years in arrears.

I am, Gentlemen, Your obedient servant,

T. S. SOUTHEY,

Hon. Sec. & Treasurer, C. B. of the R. A. S.

Shanghai, 31st January 1884.

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1883.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
	\$		\$
To Balance from last Account	120	By Advertising	58
" Sales of Journals... ..	44	" Municipal and other Taxes...	43
" Dr. Bretschneider, for Journals about to be reprinted	7	" Gas	8
" Shanghai L. & D. Society, rent of room for session ended 30th June 1883.	50	" Freight on Books... ..	6
" Shanghai Library, rent for the year ended 31st December 1883	137	" Fire Insurance :	13
" Subscriptions for the year 1880 \$ 5.00 ..		Building, Tls. 3,000	74
" " " 1881 20.00 ..		Journals " 2,000	20
" " " 1882 45.00 ..		Books " 2,500	69
" " " 1883 495.00 ..		" Postage, Stationery, and Coolie-hire... ..	13
" " for one life-membership 50.00 ..		" Kelly & Walsh, commission on collecting subscriptions at Hongkong	17
" Interest on current account with Hongkong & Shanghai Bank	615	" Noronha & Sons, balance due for printing First Part of Journal for 1882	12
	7	" Noronha & Sons, re-printing Vol. V, 1868 ..	80
		" Repairs to roof, half-share of expenses, Tls. 60 ..	50
		" Shanghai Library—Share for sundry repairs to premises	70
		" Balance lodged with Hongkong & Shai Bank ..	60
	\$981		76
	95		65
			43
			\$981
			95

E. & O. E.

T. S. SOUTHEY,

Hon. Treasurer.

Audited and found correct.

MAX SLEVOGT.

THO. W. KINGSMILL.

SHANGHAI, 31st January 1884.

SHANGHAI MUSEUM,

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1883.

RECEIPTS.					
To Balance from last Account	Tls. 500	\$	cts.		
" Grant from English Municipal Council,	" "	805	28		
" " French	" "	7	17		
" Interest on Current Account with H. & S. Bank	Tls. 600				
Total Receipts				\$914 36	
EXPENDITURE.					
By Shanghai Library, Rent to 31st Dec. 1883.	Tls. 150	207	76		
" Taxidermist's wages, 12 months, at \$80 a month	" 5	360	00		
" Coolie's	" 12	60	00		
" Purchases of Birds' Skins	" ..	7	70		
" Glass case	" ..	7	50		
" Sundries	" ..	44	10		
" Stationery	" ..	1	00		
" Fire Insurance :					
On contents Tls. 1,000 at $\frac{1}{2}$ % = Tls. 5		7	00		
Municipal and other Taxes	" ..	8	80		
" Recreation Fund, 1 Year's interest on loan due 31st December 1880,	" .. Tls. 75	103	88		
" Balance lodged in H. & S. Bank	" ..	106	62		
Total Expenditure		\$914	36		

E. & O. E.

T. S. SOUTHEY,
Hon. Treasurer.

Audited and found correct,
MAX SLEVOGT.
THO. W. KINGSMILL.

SHANGHAI, 31st January 1884.

Librarian's Report.

To the President and Council of the

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,

Gentlemen,

There has been little to call for remark in the position of the Library during the year 1883. I regret that I have not found it possible to continue the work of indexing, ably begun by my predecessor Mr. Max Slevogt.

During 1883 the following Societies have entered into correspondence with this one on the terms of interchange of publications:—

- 1.—The “Ornithologischer Verein in Wien.” Address:
Gustavus von Hayek, M. A., Ph. D., 1st Secretary
Vienna, Marokkanergasse, 3.
- 2.—The “Société des Etudes Indo-Chinoises de Saigon.”
- 3.—The “Société de Géographie de Rochefort.”

The Journal of the Society is printed to the end of 1882, being volume XVII; volume XVIII (1883) is half finished, and will probably be published before May 1st, while the materials for volume XIX (1884) are well in hand.

ED. ROBINSON,

Hon. Librarian for 1883.

Shanghai, March 14th 1884.

Curator's Report.¹

To the President and Council of the

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,

Gentlemen,

The last Report was published in 1882, but I am unable to carry it on from that date, having only assumed charge of the Museum in February last. During the present year our collection has not been increased to any great extent, but we have to thank numerous friends for sundry contributions, among which may be mentioned as of special interest some large snakes, including a Cobra from Wenchow presented by Count D'Arnoux, and also a small Alligator from Wuhu, now alive at the Museum, presented by Mr. B. C. G. Scott.

A full account of this interesting reptile, the *Alligator Sinenensis*, will be found in a former number of this Journal, published in 1878, Vol. XIII, p. 1.

About half a dozen new species of birds have been added, and also a specimen of the rare Michie's Deer (*Lophotragus Michianus*) from Ningpo.

The collection of birds, I regret to say, I found in a far from satisfactory condition, many of them being in a hopelessly dilapidated state; in this climate skins require constant care and attention to preserve them from the attacks of insects and damp, and without such care they speedily become ragged and unsightly objects of no interest or value.

Most of the spare skins were in such a state as to be perfectly useless, and it was necessary to throw them away: but

1.—This report, it will be observed, was made at a later date than those which precede it in the present volume; it is published here, however, to afford readers of the Journal the latest information possible respecting the condition and needs of the Museum.—*Editorial Committee.*

arrangements have now been made to keep all such in tightly closed boxes, where they may safely remain any length of time, besides which they are all dressed with a special preservative which infallibly protects them from the attacks of moths.

Among the specimens exhibited in the cases a gradual process of renewal is being carried out, and all old and poorly mounted skins are being replaced by others as opportunity offers; some 70 have thus been changed, and during the coming winter it is hoped that all the commoner kinds may be renewed. A careful revision of the names has also been made, and each specimen labelled. A list is annexed, which though subject to modification will I trust be found in the main correct; it is intended to form the basis of a full and detailed catalogue, and in the meantime will serve to point out not only what species we possess, but also those which we still lack.

The arrangement of the species is based upon the order followed by the Zoological Society of London in its latest published catalogue.

The collection, in which something over three hundred species appear, is undoubtedly of much value, and contains many good specimens; the group of Game Birds is of great interest, that of the Herons is almost perfect, and the Wild-fowl and Birds of Prey are also well represented,—but there is a marked lack of warblers and other small birds, which, not coming under the head of sport, are seldom shot and presented.

It will be seen that we have already the nucleus of what might become the most valuable collection of the birds of this country that exists; and it is hoped that members of this society may be induced to lend their assistance in rendering it as complete as possible.

Residents at many of the outports have frequent opportunities of securing local birds which never visit the Shanghai district, and doubtless if this were brought under their notice they would be glad to forward specimens of such for the benefit of the Museum.

The main difficulty of course lies in having the specimens sufficiently well skinned to be of any use for mounting; many skins have been received in a state which renders them perfectly useless, owing to the flesh not having been thoroughly removed.

Chinese taxidermy is of a very primitive nature, but anyone who understands the work himself can readily teach a native to skin birds as neatly as possible; in the case of birds sent from ports within a few days of Shanghai during the winter it would be unnecessary to have the skins removed, so long as they were exposed to the air and kept in shade; they should be hung up by the legs, and the very simple precaution taken of stuffing the mouth with wool, tow, or something soft, to prevent blood soiling the feathers; if possible, a little white dust such as powdered chalk or plaster of Paris, should be placed in the mouth and nostrils and on any wounds.

In conclusion I cannot do better than echo the words of a former Curator,—“We want everything, Mammals, Birds, Reptiles, Fishes, in fact every description of the Natural History of this country.” The commonest kinds will be gratefully received, and it should be remembered that no Museum should be without a large supply of duplicates, and that such duplicates are always open to inspection by visitors, who wish to make use of them for comparison or study.

F. W. STYAN, F.Z.S.,
Hon. Curator Shanghai Museum.

Shanghai, 30th September 1884.

LIST OF BIRDS
REPRESENTED IN THE SHANGHAI MUSEUM.

Order PASSERES.

Family TURDIDÆ.

Genus TURDUS.

- T. musicus.* Song-Thrush.
T. naumanni. Naumann's-Thrush.
T. chrysolaus. Red-breasted-Thrush.
T. Fuscatus. Dusky-Thrush.
T. Pallidus. Pallid-Thrush.
T. Obscurus. Grey-headed-Thrush.

Genus MERULA.

- M. Sinensis.* Chinese Black-bird.

Genus OREOCINCLA.

- O. Varia.* Mottled Hill-Thrush.

Genus MONTICOLA.

- M. Solitaria.* Red-bellied Rock-Thrush.

Genus MYIOPHONUS.

- M. Cæruleus.* Violet Whistling-Thrush.

Genus PRATINCOLA.

- P. Indica.* Indian Stonechat.

A chat (species undetermined.)

Genus CHÆMARRORNIS.

- C. Leucocephala.* White-capped Redstart.

Genus RUTICILLA.

- R. Fuliginosa.* Dusky Redstart.
R. Aurorea. Grey-headed Redstart.
R. Schisticeps. Blue-headed Redstart.

Genus *COPSYCHUS*.*C. Sauleeris*. Indian Dial-bird.Genus *RHOPOPHILUS*.*R. Pekinensis*. Pekinese Rhopophilus.Genus *ACROCEPHALUS*.*A. Orientalis*. Eastern Reed Warbler.Genus *CETTIA*.*C. Canturiens*. Bubbling Warbler.

Several Warblers species undetermined.

Genus *REGULOIDES*.*R. Proregulus*. False Kinglet.Genus *IANTHIA*.*I. Cyanura*. Bluetail.Genus *CYANECULA*.*C. Cœrulecula*. Blue-throated Warbler.Genus *CALLIOPE*.*C. Camtschatkensis*. Ruby-throated Warbler.Genus *ACCENTOR*.*A. Montanellus*. Mountain Accentor.Family *CINCLIDÆ*.Genus *CINCLUS*.*C. Pallasii*. Brown Dipper.Family *PARIDÆ*.Genus *PARUS*.*P. Minor*. Lesser Tit.*P. Pekinensis*. Pekinese Tit.Genus *ACREDULA*.*A. Concinna*. Red-headed Tit.*A. Glaucoocularis*. Silver-throated Tit.Genus *PANURUS*.*P. Biarmicus*. Bearded Reed-tit.Genus *LIOTHRIX*.*L. Luteus*. Yellow-bellied Liiothrix.

Family SITTIDÆ.

Genus SITTA.

S. Sinensis. Nuthatch.

Family CERTHIDÆ.

Genus TICHODROMA.

T. Muraria. Wall-creeper.

Family MOTACILLIDÆ.

Genus HENICURUS.

H. Sinensis. Spotted Forktail.

Genus MOTACILLA.

M. Albnides. White Wagtail.

M. Ocularis. Streak-eyed Wagtail.

M. Hodgsoni. Hodgsons Wagtail.

M. Flava. Yellow Wagtail.

M. Sulphurea. Grey and Yellow Wagtail

Genus LIMONIDROMUS.

L. Indicus. Barred Limonidromus.

Genus PIPASTES.

P. Agilis. Eastern Tree-pipit.

Genus CORYDALLA.

C. Sinensis. Chinese Marsh pipit.

Family PYCNONOTIDÆ.

Genus PYCNONOTUS.

P. Sinensis. Chinese Bulbul.

P. Chrysorrhoides. Red-vented Bulbul.

P. Xanthorrhous. Yellow-vented Bulbul.

P. Jocosus. Red-eared Bulbul.

Genus SPIZIXUS.

S. Semitorques. Mountain Bulbul.

Genus HYPISIPETES.

H. Amaurotis. Russet-eared Bulbul.

Family CRATEROPODIDÆ.

Genus GARRULAX.

- G. Perspicilatus.* Masked Jay-Thrush.
G. Pecticollis. Collared Jay-Thrush.
G. Chinensis. Chinèsé Jay-Thrush.
G. Sannio. White checked Jay-Thrush.

Genus PTERORHINUS.

- P. Davidi.* David's Pterorhinus.

Genus POMATORHINUS.

- P. Stridulus.* Small Hwamei.

Genus LEUCODIOTHRON.

- L. Sinense.* Hwamei.

Genus PARADOXORNIS.

- P. Gularis.* Black-Throated Paradox-bird.
P. Guttaticollis. Spotted-necked Paradox-bird.

Genus SUTHORA.

- S. Webbiana.* Webb's Tit-Thrush.

Family ORIOLIDÆ.

Genus ORIOLUS.

- O. Sinensis.* Black-naped Oriole.

Family DICRURIDÆ.

Genus BUCHANGA.

- B. Leucogenys.* White-cheeked Drongo.

Genus CHIBIA.

- C. Brevirostris.* Short-billed Drongo.

Family LANIDÆ.

Genus LANIUS.

- L. Schach.* Schach's Shrike.
L. Superciliosus. Brown Shrike.
L. Tephronotus. Dingy Shrike.
L. Magnirostris. Thick-billed Shrike.
L. Bucephalus. Bucephalus Shrike.
L. Sphenocercus. Great Grey Shrike.

Family AMPELIDÆ.

Genus AMPELIS.

- A. Garrulus.* Bohemian Waxwing.
A. Phænicoptera. Red-tailed Waxwing.

Family MUSCICAPIDÆ.

Genus TCHITREA.

- T. Incei.* Ince's Paradise Flycatcher.
T. Princeps. Purple Paradise Flycatcher.

Genus STOPAROLA.

- S. Melanops.* Verditer Flycatcher.

Genus CYANOPTILA.

- C. Cyanomelæna.* White bellied Blue Flycatcher.

Genus XANTHOPYGIA.

- X. Tricolor.* White-browed Xanthopygia.
X. Narcissina. Yellow-browed Xanthopygia.

Genus BUTALIS.

- B. Latirostris.* Broad-billed Flycatcher.

Family PERICROCUTIDÆ.

Genus PERICROCOTUS.

- P. Brevisrostris.* Short-billed Minivet.
P. Cinereus. Grey Minivet.

Family HIRUNDINIDÆ.

Genus HIRUNDO.

- H. Gutturalis.* Eastern House Swallow.

Genus CECROPIS.

- C. Dauricus.* Daurian Swallow.

Genus CHELIDON.

- C. Lagopoda.* House Martin.

Family NECTARINIDÆ.

Genus ZOSTEROPS.

- Z. Simplex.* White-eye.
Z. Erythropleurus. Red-flanked White-eye.

Family PLOCEIDÆ.

Genus MUNIA.

M. Acuticauda. Wedge-tailed Nutmeg bird.

Family FRINGILLIDÆ.

Genus PASSER.

P. Montana. Tree Sparrow.

P. Rutilans. Ruddy Sparrow.

Genus COCOTHRASTES.

C. Vulgaris. Hawfinch.

C. Melanurus. Black-tailed Hawfinch.

C. Personata. Masked Hawfinch.

Genus FRINGILLA.

F. Montifringilla. Mountain Finch.

Genus CHRYSOMITRIS.

C. Spinus. Siskin.

Genus CHLOROSPIZA.

C. Sinica. Golden-wing.

Genus LINOTA.

L. Canescens. Mealy Redpole.

Genus CARPODACUS.

C. Erythrinus. Scarlet Bullfinch.

Genus PYRRHULA.

P. Griseiventris. Bullfinch.

Genus LOXIA.

L. Curvirostra. Crossbill.

Genus EMBERIZA.

E. Spodocephala. Grey-headed Bunting.

E. Pusilla. Little Bunting.

E. Fucata. Painted Bunting.

E. Cja. Meadow Bunting.

E. Cioles. Chestnut Bunting.

E. Elegans. Yellow-throated Bunting.

E. Leucocephala. Pine Bunting.

E. Tristrami. Tristram's Bunting.

E. Rustica. Rustic Bunting.

Genus EUSPIZA.

E. Aureola. Yellow-breasted Bunting.

E. Rutila. Rufous Bunting.

Family STURNIDÆ.

Genus STURNUS.

S. Cineraceus. Grey Starling.

S. Sericeus. White-headed Starling.

Genus TEMENUCHUS.

T. Sinensis. Chinese Starlet.

T. Dauricus. Daurian Starlet.

Genus ACRIDOTHERES.

A. Cristatellus. Crested Mynah.

Genus GRACUPICA.

G. Nigricollis. Black-necked Grackle.

Family CORVIDÆ.

Genus CORVUS.

C. Sinensis. Eastern Crow.

C. Torquatus. White-ringed Crow.

Genus FRUGILEGUS.

F. Pastinator. Eastern Rook.

Genus LYCOS.

L. Dauricus. Pied Jackdaw.

L. Dauricus & *L. Neglectus.* A. Hybrid Jackdaw.

Genus FREGILUS.

F. Graculus. Chough.

Genus PICA.

P. Med'a. Eastern Magpie.

Genus CYANOPOLIVS.

C. Cyanus. Chinese Blue Magpie.

Genus GARRULUS.

G. Sinensis. Chinese Jay.

Genus UROCISSA.

U. Sinensis. Chinese Blue-pie.

Genus DENDROCITTA.

D. Sinensis. Chinese Tree-pie.

Family ALAUDIDÆ.

Genus ALAUDA.

A. Cantarella. Lesser Skylark.

Genus MELANOCORYPHA.

M. Mongolica. Mongolian Lark.

Family PITTIDÆ.

Genus PITTA.

P. Nympha. Ground-thrush.

Family CYPSELIDÆ.

Genus CYPSELUS.

C. Pekinensis. Pekinese Swift.

Genus CHÆTURA.

C. Caudacuta. Spine-tailed Swift.

Family CAPRIMULGIDÆ.

Genus CAPRIMULGUS.

C. Jotaka. Nightjar.

Family PICIDÆ.

Genus PICUS.

P. Mandarinus. Great-spotted Woodpecker.

Genus YUNGIPICUS.

Y. Scintilliceps. Spark-headed Woodpecker.

Genus GECINUS.

G. Guerini. Green Woodpecker.*G. Canis.* Grey-headed Woodpecker.

Family ALCEDINIDÆ.

Genus ALCEDO.

A. Bengalensis. Bengalese Kingfisher.

Genus HALCYON.

H. Smyrnensis. White-breasted Kingfisher.

H. Pileatus. Black-capped Kingfisher.

H. Coromandelianus. Ruby Kingfisher.

Genus CERYLE.

C. Rudis. Black and White Kingfisher.

C. Lugubris. Large spotted Kingfisher.

Family UPUPIDÆ.

Genus UPUPA.

U. Epops. Hoopoe.

Family CORACIDÆ.

Genus EURYSTOMUS.

E. Orientalis. Oriental Roller.

Order COCCYGES.

Family CUCULIDÆ.

Genus CUCULUS.

C. Canorus. Common Cuckoo.

Genus SURNICULUS.

S. Dicruroides. Drongo-like Cuckoo.

Genus COCCYSTES.

C. Coromandus. Red-winged crested Cuckoo.

Genus CENTROPUS.

C. Sinensis. Crow Pheasant.

Order STRIGES.

Family ASIONIDÆ.

Genus ASIO.

A. Otus. Long-eared Owl.

A. Brachyotus. Short-eared Owl.

Genus BUBO.

B. Maximus. Great Eagle Owl.

Genus SCOPS.

S. Sunia. Eastern Scops Owl.

Genus ATHENE.

A. Whitelyi. Whitely's Owlet.

Genus LEMPIGIUS.

L. Semitorques. Collared Owl.

Order ACCIPITRES.

Family FALCONIDÆ.

Sub-family PANDIONINÆ.

Genus PANDION.

P. Haliaetus. Osprey.

Sub-family CIRCINÆ.

Genus CIRCUS.

C. Cyaneus. Hen Harrier.*C. Spilonotus.* Striped Harrier.*C. Melanoleucus.* Pied Harrier.*C. Æruginosus.* Marsh Harrier.

Sub-family BUTEONINÆ.

Genus BUTEO.

B. Japonicus. Japanese Buzzard.*B. Hemilasius.* Great pale Buzzard.*A.* Buzzard (species undetermined).

Genus ARCHIBUTEO.

A. Strophhiata. Thibetan Rough-legged Buzzard.

Genus HALIAETUS.

H. Albicilla. White-tailed Sea-Eagle.*H. Leucoryphus.* Pallas' Sea-Eagle (?)

Genus AQUILA.

A. Chrysaetus. Golden Eagle.*A. Mogilnic.* Imperial Eagle.*A. Naevioides.* Tawny Eagle.*A. Clanga.* Large spotted Eagle.

Sub-family ACCIPITRINÆ.

Genus ACCIPITER.

A. Nisus. Sparrow Hawk.

Genus MICRONISUS.

M. Stevensonii. Stevenson's Sparrow-Hawk.

Sub-family FALCONINÆ.

Genus FALCO.

F. Peregrinus. Peregrine Falcon.

Genus HYPOTRIORCHIS.

H. Subbuteo. Hobby.*H. Æsalon.* Merlin.

Genus ERYTHROPUS.

E. Amurensis. Red-footed Falcon.

Genus TINNUNCULUS.

T. Japonicus. Japanese Kestrel.

Sub-family MILVINÆ.

Genus MILVUS.

M. Melanotis. Black-eared Kite.

Sub-family VULTURINÆ.

Genus VULTUR.

V. Monachus. Cinerous Vulture.

Order STEGANOPODES.

Family PELICANIDÆ.

Genus PELECANUS.

P. Mitratus. Crested Pelican.*P. Philippensis.* Philippine Pelican.

Family PHALACROCORACIDÆ.

Genus PHALACROCORAX.

P. Carbo. Cormorant.

Order HERODIONES.

Family ARDEIDÆ.

Genus ARDEA.

A. Cinerea. Common Heron.*A. Purpurea.* Purple Heron.

Genus HERODIAS.

- H. Alba.* Great white Egret.
H. Intermedia. Lesser white Egret.
H. Garzetta. Least white Egret.

Genus BUBULCUS.

- B. Coromandus.* Buff-backed Heron.

Genus BUTORIDES.

- B. Jaranicus.* Little Green Heron.

Genus ARDETTA.

- A. Flavicollis.* Yellow-necked Heron.
A. Sinensis. Chinese Little Heron.
A. Cinnamonea. Cinnamon Heron.
A. Eurythma. Chocolate Heron.

Genus ARDEOLA.

- A. Prasinosceles.* Red-necked Heron.

Genus NYCTIARDEA.

- N. Nycticorax.* Night Heron.

Genus BOTAURUS.

- B. Stellaris.* Bittern.

Family CICONIDÆ.

Genus CICONIA.

- C. Nigra.* Black Stork.

Genus TANTALUS.

- T. Leucocephalus.* Indian Tantalus.

Family PLATALEIDÆ.

Genus PLATALEA.

- P. Major.* Spoonbill.

Genus IBIS.

- I Nippon.* Nippon Ibis.

Order ANSERES.

Family ANATIDÆ.

Sub-family ANSERINÆ.

Genus ANSER.

A. Segetum. Bean Goose.

A. Erythropus. Lesser white-fronted Goose.

A. Cygnoides. Swan Goose.

Genus NETTAPUS.

N. Coromandelanus. Goose Teal.

Sub-family CYGNINÆ.

Genus CYGNUS.

C. Ferus. Whooper.

C. Bewickii. Bewick's Swan.

Sub-family ANATINÆ.

Genus TADORMA.

T. Valpanser. Sheldrake.

Genus CASARCA.

C. Rutila. Ruddy Sheldrake.

Genus ANAS.

A. Boschas. Common Wild-duck.

A. Zonoryncha. Yellow-nib Duck.

Genus CHANDELASMUS.

C. Streperus. Gadwall.

Genus QUERQUEDULA.

Q. Crecca. Teal.

Q. Circia. Garganey Teal.

Genus EUNETTA.

E. Fulcata. Falcate Teal.

E. Formosa. Spectacled Teal.

Genus DAFILA.

D. Acuta. Pintail Duck

Genus MARECA.

M. Penelope. Widgeon.

Genus SPATULA.

S. Clypeata. Shoveller.

Genus AIX.

A. Galericulata. Mandarin Duck.

Sub-family FULIGULINÆ.

Genus FULIGULA.

F. Cristata. Tufted Duck.*F. Mariloides.* Chinese Scaup.*F. Baeri.* Baer's Duck.*F. Ferina.* Pochard.

Genus CLANGULA.

C. Glaucion. Golden-eye.

Genus CÆDEMIA.

Æ. Fusca. Velvet Scoter.

Family ANATIDÆ.

Sub-family MERGINÆ.

Genus MERGUS.

M. Merganser. Goosander.*M. Serrator.* Merganser.*M. Albellus.* Smew.

Order COLUMBÆ.

Family COLUMBIDÆ.

Genus COLUMBA.

C. Intermedia. Eastern Rock Pigeon.

Genus TURTUR.

T. Rupicola. Eastern Turtle-Dove.*T. Chinensis.* Chinese Turtle-Dove.

Family PTEROCLIDÆ.

Genus SYRRHAPTES.

S. Paradoxus. Pallas Sand Grouse.

Order GALLINÆ.

Family TETRAONIDÆ.

Genus TETRASTES.

T. Bonasia. Hazel Grouse.

Family PHASIANIDÆ.

Sub-family PERDICINÆ.

Genus FRANCOLINUS.

F. Sinensis. Chinese Francolin.

Genus BAMBUSICOLA.

B. Thoracica. Bamboo Partridge.

Genus COTURNIX.

C. Communis. Common Quail.

C. Chinensis. Chinese Quail.

Sub-family CACCABININÆ.

Genus CACCABIS.

C. Chukar. Chukar Partridge.

Sub-family PHASIANINÆ.

Genus CROSSOPTILON.

C. Mantchuricum. Mantchurian Crossoptilon.

Genus PHASIANUS.

P. Torquatus. Ring-necked Pheasant.

P. Decollatus. Ringless Pheasant.

P. Reevesi. Reeves Pheasant.

P. Elliotti. Elliot's Pheasant.

Genus THAUMALEA.

T. Picta. Golden Pheasant.

T. Amherstiae. Amherst Pheasant.

Genus PUCRASIA.

P. Darwini. Darwin's Pucras Pheasant.

Genus EUPLOCAMUS.

E. Nycthemerus. Silver Pheasant.

E. Swinhoe. Swinhoe's Pheasant.

Genus CERIORNIS.

C. Temmincki. Temminck's Tragopan.

Order FULICARÆ.

Family RALLIDÆ.

Genus RALLUS.

R. Indicus. Indian Rail.

Genus HYPOTÆMIDIA.

H. Striata. Striated Rail.

Genus PORZANA.

P. Erythrothorax. Red Breasted Crake.

P. Pygmea. Baillon's Crake.

P. Exquisita. Exquisite Crake.

A Crake species uncertain.

Genus HYDROPHASIANUS.

H. Chirurgus. Pheasant-tailed Jacana.

Genus PORPHYRIO.

P. Cælestis. Purple Water-hen.

Genus GALLINULA.

G. Chloropus. Common Moorhen.

G. Phænicura. White-breasted Moorhen.

Genus GALLICREX.

G. Cristatus. Crested Water Cock.

Genus FULICA.

F. Atra. Common Coot.

Order ALECTORIDES.

Family OTIDÆ.

Genus OTIS.

O. Dybowskii. Great Bustard.

Family GRUIDÆ.

Genus GRUS.

G. Monachus. White headed Crane.

Order LIMICOLÆ.

Family CHARADRIIDÆ.

Genus VANELLUS.

V. Cristatus. Peewit.

Genus CHETTUSIA.

C. Cinerea. Grey Peewit.

Genus CHARADRIUS.

C. Fulvus. Eastern Golden Plover.

Genus ÆGIALITES.

Æ. Veredus. Red-breasted Plover.

Æ. Flacidus. Large Ringed Plover.

Æ. Minor. Lesser Ringed Plover.

Genus HÆMATOPUS.

H. Osculans. Eastern Oyster Catcher.

Genus STREPSILAS.

S. Interpres. Turnstone.

Genus GLAREOLA.

G. Orientalis. Collared Pratincole.

Family SCOLOPACIDÆ.

Genus NUMENIUS.

N. Phaeopus. Whimbrel.

N. Lineatus. Eastern Curlew.

N. Minutus. Little Curlew.

Genus LIMOSA.

L. Brevipes. Black-tailed Godwit.

L. Baeri. Bar-tailed Godwit.

Genus PSEUDOSCOLOPAX.

P. Semipalmatus. Snipe-billed Godwit.

Genus SCOLOPAX.

S. Rusticola. Woodcock.

Genus GALLINAGO.

G. Solitaria. Solitary Snipe.

G. Scolopacina. Eastern Snipe (Winter Snipe).

G. Megala. Spring Snipe.

G. Horsfieldi. Pin-tailed Snipe.

Genus RYNCHEA.

R. Capensis. Painted Snipe.

Genus TOTANUS.

T. Calidris. Redshank.

T. Glottis. Greenshank.

T. Ochropus. Green Sandpiper.

T. Glareola. Wood Sandpiper.

T. Incanus. Grey Sandpiper.

Genus TRINGOIDES.

T. Hypoleucos. Common Sandpiper.

Genus TRINGA.

T. Alpina. Dunlin.

T. Canutus. Knot.

T. Crassirostris. Thick-billed Knot.

T. Subarquata. Curlew Sandpiper.

T. Acuminata. Russet-headed Sandpiper.

T. Ruficollis. Red-necked Stint.

Genus TEREKIA.

T. Cinerea. Terek Sandpiper.

Genus RECURVIROSTRA.

R. Avocetta. Avocet.

Genus HIMANTOPUS.

H. Candidus. Black-winged Stilt.

Order GAVIÆ.

Family LARIDÆ.

Genus LARUS.

L. Occidentalis. Eastern Herring Gull.

L. Canus. Common Gull.

L. Hælibundus. Black-headed Gull.

Genus THALASSIUS.

T. Bergii. Eastern Swift Tern.

Genus STERNA.

S. Longipennis. Long-winged Tern.

Genus STERNULA.

S. Sinensis. Chinese Little Tern.

A. Tern species undetermined.

Family PROCELLARIDÆ.

Genus PUFFINUS.

P. Anglorum (?) Shearwater.

Storm Petrel (species undetermined)

Genus DIOMEDEA.

D. Albatrus. Northern Albatross.

D. Derogata. Black Albatross.

Order PYGOPODES.

Family COLYMBIDÆ.

Genus PODICEPS.

P. Cristatus. Great Crested Grebe.

P. Cornutus. Dusky Grebe.

P. Minor. Dabchick.

Genus COLYMBUS.

C. Septentrionalis. Red-throated Diver.





JOURNAL
OF THE
NORTH-CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

ARTICLE I.

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT CHINESE KNOW
OF THE GREEKS AND ROMANS.*

BY

JOSEPH EDKINS, D.D.

IN DR. BRETSCHNEIDER'S learned account of "The Knowledge possessed by the Ancient Chinese of the Arabs" published in London, 1871, he states that the Chinese accounts of foreign countries contained in their histories are vague and inaccurate.

This is much to be lamented but none the less must we, if we would inquire into the past history of our globe, make strenuous efforts to gather from those same vague and inaccurate accounts safe results, and interesting additions to our own knowledge. There is little doubt though he has said this, that Dr. Bretschneider will consent to the opinion that the two great historical writers of the Han dynasty, that of Si-machien and that of Pan-ku, have conferred an unfading glory on the Chinese scholarship of that period. These authors did the best they could with the knowledge they had, and we Europeans can now reap the benefit to be derived from the study of their works, although they contain inexact descriptions.

* Read before the Society on the 9th January, 1883.

One name by which the Roman empire was known was Ta T'sin 大秦. The reason is said to be that the inhabitants of that empire resembled the Chinese in stature, erectness and upright conduct.

May there not be another reason for this name? The Chinese may have compared the Tsin dynasty with the Romans on account of the rapidity and success of their military expeditions, and the fact that they subjugated all the surrounding kingdoms. The name first occurs in the Heu-han-shu, the work of Fan-ye, himself an author of the fifth century. It is found only in the histories written after the time of Pan-ku, the historian of the early Han dynasty, and the brother of Pan-c'hau who subdued Turkestan. But this may be regarded as a reason for thinking that, it was the Buddhists who entered from China to teach their religion that gave the Romans this name. It was in the time of Nero A.D. 64, that they first entered China coming from Affghanistan, then called the country of the Getae. When in the reigns of Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius and Commodus the next Buddhists are mentioned, it was from Affghanistan and Parthia that they came, remaining in China from A.D. 147 till about A.D. 180. The embassy from Marcus Aurelius arrived A.D. 166 by Canton. In the biography of the earliest of the Parthian missionaries it is said that he went to Canton. He was also an excellent translator on account of his good knowledge of the Chinese language. We may conclude then that the name Ta-t'sin 大秦 for Rome was adopted through the Buddhists, and that the reason of its adoption is to be found probably in some national designation for Rome, in some language current at that time in Affghanistan and India.

Referring to the earlier accounts, Rome can only be detected under the name 黎軒 Li-kan. In the Shī-chi we are told under the heading Parthia (called there 安息 an sik or as pronounced at Shanghai Ersik, the Arsacidæ) that west of Parthia lay Syria 條枝 Dio-ti, and north of Parthia lay the Alans and the country of Likān. Fan-ye identifies Likān with Rome. The Shī-ki was written about B.C. 95, before

the Romans under Pompey conquered Syria, which was in B.C. 65, while Greece was divided into Roman provinces about B.C. 146, so that in the time of the Shī-ki the powerful nations of the west were Parthia, Syria, Rome and Egypt. The author knew of all these except Egypt, and he designated them by names current in Affghanistan and Bactria at the time. Unfortunately we do not know the name by which the Parthians called the Romans. If we did we might get light on the origin of the term Li-kan. We may speculate on its resemblance to the word *regnum*, or Hellenikon or some other word, but with no very satisfactory result. We need more knowledge of names current after the time of Alexander the Great in Persia and India before we can determine this point. Before the Chinese made their way to the countries known as Bactria and Sogdiana, the Greeks under Alexander had gone there and left behind them flourishing colonies, which had existed through revolutions, wars and intervals of peace for nearly two centuries.

The conquest of Bactria and Sogdiana by Alexander the Great, B.C. 328, was followed after sixteen years by the consolidation of the kingdom of the Seleucidae. Bactria was the most distant province of that empire and remained so for about sixty years. At this time the last Cheu emperors were reigning feebly. The time was not favourable for foreign intercourse, or the Chinese and the Greeks might have learned to respect one another as having at about the same time a school of political philosophy and morals, and a literature of history and poetry.

After sixty years the eastern dependencies of the Syrian Kingdom were snatched away by insurgent chiefs. The kingdom of Ansi, or Arsic, as the Chinese name was probably pronounced nineteen centuries ago, appeared in the history of the western nations as Parthia. Bactria was left in peace by Arsaces, and the presence there of Greek colonies, flourishing through the fineness and fertility of the climate and soil, had a little before rendered it possible for Deodotus to change the title and position of a satrap under the Seleucidae into that of an independent king. His son made a treaty with Tiridates,

king of Parthia, and joined him in fighting against Syria. He began to reign about B.C. 250, others say B.C. 255.—*See Bayer, Historia Regni Græcorum Bactriani.*

Euthydemus, a native of Magnesia, effected a revolution in the Bactrian kingdom B.C. 220 and became king. He caused Greek coins to be cast for use in his kingdom as had been done before by the dynasty of Diodotus. After eleven years Antiochus, the great king of Syria, came eastward with an army to reconquer his old possessions and destroy the new kingdoms, Parthia and Bactria, which had sprung up there. He defeated Euthydemus in battle at the river Arius, in the year B.C. 207, a peace was soon made on the submission of Euthydemus, who pleaded that Antiochus would do well to leave him the title of king, because he was surrounded by powerful tribes, who would respect him the more on account of it. Antiochus gave one of his daughters in marriage to the son of Euthydemus. A treaty of alliance was made, and in the invasion of India by Antiochus he was helped by the king of Bactria. The capital of Bactria was Zariaspa, a city on the Oxus.

Euthydemus died B.C. 196 and was succeeded by Menander, who conquered the Penjaub and called himself on his coins king of India and Bactria. He was therefore a powerful king. In the year B.C. 181 he was followed by Eucratides. The kingdom of Parthia was now increasing in size, and B.C. 152 Mithridates, king of that country, added to his possessions Media, Hyrcania and Elymais. In conquering Hyrcania, which is on the south-east of the Caspian sea, he became a more dangerous neighbour than before to the Bactrians and the Dahæ. Coins of Eucratides of the date B.C. 148 have been found, eight years earlier than the visit of the Chinese traveller Chang-c'hien to Bactria, when China obtained her first knowledge of the Greeks. On the coins which have been found on both sides of the Paropamisus, the mountain chain which separates the waters of the rivers Indus and Oxus, this king is called Eucratides the Great. Bayer believed that he was succeeded by his son Eucratides the second, but this view is contested. According to Wilson Eucratides was succeeded by his son Heliocles. Coins have been found with Greek and

Arian inscriptions associating the two names in the sovereignty.

The Greek Bactrian kingdom was destroyed B.C. 127, thirteen years after the visit of Chang-c'hien and twenty-six years before the successful war waged by the Chinese against the native dynasty, which followed the Greek.

The Chinese name for the country in Sī-ma-t'sien and Pan-ku is 大宛 Ta-wan. The prefix *ta* "great" is not properly part of the name. The word is then Wan, and this is probably the Indian Yavan, the name for the Greeks, borrowed by the Hindoos from the Persians. From the time of Alexander and during the reigns of the Seleucidae, the Greeks are known to the Indians by no other name than Yavanas. The *v* in this word is *w*, and the sound agrees accurately enough with that of the Chinese so far as we know it, which was probably Yon. The modern Persian taken from the Arabic is Yunan. The Hebrew in Zechariah IX, 13, "when I have raised up thy sons O Zion, against thy sons O Greece" is yawan agreeing exactly with the Sanscrit.

Among the reasons for identifying Bactria with Ta-wan are the customs of the people as described by the Chinese. For example Chang-c'hien found in Bactria the art of wine-making from grapes flourishing, and says that the rich men of the country stored it to the extent of thousands of piculs. After being kept for several tens of years it was still good. They also paid unusual honour to women, consulted them in important matters and adopted their views.

The Ta-wan country was so important that the historian gave all his information respecting western countries under this name. In the work of Sī-ma-c'hien* it is the heading of the entire section which treats of western countries. This historian would not have classed all western countries under this title, if Chang-c'hien and Li-kwang-li had not in their accounts described Ta-wan as specially interesting and important.

* Sī-ma-ts'ien died about B.C. 85. Li-kwang-li conquered Ta-wan B.C. 101. Mayers identifies Ta-wan with Ferghana, de Guignes with Sogdiana. Perhaps both of these authors mean Kho-kand. Reinusat makes Ta-wan, Ferghana. The city of Kho-kand is 200 miles N.E. of Sa-mar-kand, Ferghana is the N.E. neighbour to Bochara.

In the identification of ancient Chinese names of countries, the names themselves ought to be well considered. For example when the country of the Dahae is called Ta-hia it should be well weighed whether the characters 大夏 were not formerly called Da-hae. The use of one national designation for a race or kingdom is more common than the use of two. Many races have two names, but there are not a few instances where one principal name is predominant in usage over any other.

By examining the ancient sounds of Chinese characters we may identify old names with much more confidence than otherwise. The name Ta-yue-shi 大月氏 for the Massagetae does not, when spelled in this way, suggest the western name as known to the Greeks. But, if we adopt the sound Get-ti which we are obliged by correct reading of the Chinese old sounds to do, we arrive at an orthography which may well inspire us with some hope, that other names may also, when carefully reduced to a self consistent orthography, be proved to be identical in ancient China and in ancient European geographers.

When Alexander the Great, in B.C. 328, followed in the footsteps of the fugitive Darius, he found the Da-hae living in the reign known as Hyrcania on the south-east of the Caspian sea. He crossed with his army the first home of the Parthian empire, and the provinces of Aria and Drangiana to the modern Herat, then called Arachosia. From this point turning northwards he crossed the Hindoo Coosh mountains, then called Paropamisus, into Bactria. The Bactriani are called by Quintus Curtius a very warlike race. Their capital Zariaspa was situated on the Oxus.

The Oxus then flowed into the Caspian and was much used for navigation. Now it is an affluent of the Aral lake. It is called in old Chinese accounts the 焉水, Kwei-shui. In Wei-yuen's map, prefixed to Lin-tse-sü's geography, the Oxus is so named.

In the year B.C. 162 the Massagetae were then living at Tun-hwang on the east of Lake Lob. The Hiung Nu Turks attacked them and killed their king. They then left for a

more western residence, and we hear of them between the Dahae and the nation called Kang-ku.

The road, by which the Chinese diplomatic agent Chang-c'hien reached the country of the Dahae, is described by Si-ma-t'sien as circuitous. He went to Ta-wan first; thence to the country of the Kang-ku nation; from this point to the Massagetae, and from them to the Dahae.

The position of the Dahae is known. They were a peaceful trading race on the shores of the Caspian. Kang-ku is placed by Remusat and Klaproth in Sogdiana. Wei-yuen places it far north in the Kirgis country.

It may well be doubted if Ta-wan was Sogdiana, because in the later Han history the So-ku kingdom, which from the sound should be Sogdiana, was at war with Ta-wan, which may surely in that case have been Bactria. This point however is less important because Sogdiana was a Greek province in earlier times.

Chang-c'hien therefore will have gone by the southern route to Bactria (Ta-wan) and then to Sogdiana at that time occupied by the Kang-ku race. From thence he went south across the Oxus, which at that time flowed into the Caspian and would support a population on its banks, whom I suppose to have been the Massagetae. The Kang-ku king had a winter residence at Pidan, which was the chief city of the Lakinik country. As this was due west of the Chinese residency and 5550 *li* distant, I suppose it to be in Sogdiana. The Chinese Viceroy's residence would be in Ili.

The Massagetae shortly before the time of Christ removed to the south side of the Oxus, as shown in Wei-yuen's map, and remained there during the Wei period. This would be possibly on account of the unruly action of the Oxus, destined afterwards to flow to the Aral Sea, causing dryness in the soil or destructive floods and rendering the country unproductive.

From the Massagetae Chang-c'hien arrived among the Dahae and staid there more than a year. He had lived ten years with the Hlung-nu and therefore was familiar with

Turkish. In this new region he would probably also learn Persian, which would be necessary for the commercial transactions of the Dahae with India, a part of the produce of which passed by the Oxus into the Caspian.

As the Massagetae, a century afterwards, conquered the Penjaub, their language would affect somewhat the formation of the Penjaubi language. The Massagetae became then more powerful than they had ever been. In the Fa-yuen-chu-lin they are named among the three most flourishing races in the world, the others being China and Rome.

On account of the word Massa being rendered "Great" in the Chinese name I suppose the language to be Indo-European. But common consent calls them Scythians according to the usage of the early classical authors, who described the Massagetae as being like the Scythians. Remusat thinks they are the Goths.*

The Massagetae, B.C. 529, lived north of the Araxes on the western shores of the Caspian sea. For it was in that year that they killed Cyrus in battle. Queen Tomuris sought his body on the battle field, had his head cut off and placed it in a skin filled with human blood in order to shew her indignation for his love of conquest and wholesale destruction of human life.

At the time of the expedition of Alexander the Massagetae are mentioned as a tribe in the Chorasmian region, which is on the east of Sogdiana and south of the Aral sea. It is said of them that they were always ready to make war when they saw a prospect of plunder. They caused trouble to Alexander while he was in Bactria, by attacking his garrisons and some detached bodies of his cavalry.

This was previous to the time when the Massagetae, east of Lake Lob, moved westward. The Chinese accounts, in saying that the Massagetae went to the country of the Dahae, omit mentioning the fact that they had tribes of their own nation residing close. This would permit them with a reason for seeking a home in that region, and a junction with kindred clans would strengthen them greatly, found as they are, on the

* Foe Koue Ki, p. 78.

east and west of the Caspian and on the east and west of Lake Lob, they occupied portions of a tract of country embracing nearly 50 degrees of Longitude and, if we include the Getae of Thrace, a much larger area.

The Chinese account may be used to correct Malte Brun's view respecting the Oxus. He argues in his 34th Book that Strabo and Pliny were wrong in saying that the Oxus flowed into the Caspian. Remarkably enough the Han history shows that Strabo and Pliny were right. This appears from the fact that there is no difference of opinion about the position of the Dahae, who however are found south of the Oxus in the Chinese account and at the same time on the shores of the Caspian. Strabo and Pliny then were right.

The physical description of the Ta-wan people ought to be considered by us, when we wish to determine the question if they were Greeks. They had, say the ancient Chinese, deep eyes and much beard and whisker. That description will suit almost any Indo-European or Semitic race. It will therefore suit the Greeks or the Persians.

The Persian occupation of Bactria, which lasted for about two centuries, must have caused many Persians to settle there permanently. The Persian and Greek element together have given an Indo-European aspect to a portion of the people, which has never been since lost.

Alexander's efforts were still more definitely fixed on colonization than the Persian kings had ever been. He founded many cities and left a very considerable number of colonists in Bactria and Sogdiana.

Quintus Curtius tells a sad story of the fate of a Greek colony, which dated from the time of Xerxes. The Milesians, called Branchidae, in charge of a certain rich temple, had, at the period of the invasion of Greece by Xerxes, taken the spoils of the temple and given them to Xerxes. This was in the eyes of Greece a crime that could not be forgiven. They were transferred by Xerxes from Miletus to Bactria. Alexander passed their town with his army. They joyfully welcomed the Macedonians. A consultation was held as to what

should be done with them. The result was a merciless slaughter of the whole colony by command of Alexander.

Thus we learn that Persia had planted in that fruitful and inviting region, not only settlements of her own people but even of the more distant Greeks.

Alexander during his stay, extending over 18 months, left there indelible marks of his genius not only for war but for imprinting on the nations he conquered solid features of the Greek civilization.

It was by this road that something of the influences of European thought and Greek art penetrated through Chinese Turkestan to China.

It was in B.C. 106 that the Emperor Han Wu-ti sent an army to take vengeance on Ta-wan for the murder of a Chinese Ambassador, despatched by him a short time previously.

Li-kwang-li was the general who was sent. He failed to conquer Ta-wan and returned with only two-tenths of his army. His expedition had met with nothing but disaster, the cities on the way had been closed against him, and provisions denied him. When he reached Ta-wan, he was unable with the feeble remnant of his army to cope with the forces that met him, he sustained a severe defeat and returned. The Chinese emperor withheld his permission for him to enter China, and refused his consent to the abandonment of the enterprise. In the year B.C. 101 he went again at the head of a large army. The chief people of Ta-wan killed their king Muko, and submitted to superior force. The expedition was successful.

The chief people of the state appear to have had at that time a greater power than the king, and the government would seem to have been in part aristocratic.

Though Ta-wan, when conquered, was no longer the Greek kingdom founded by Diodotus, it was not long after the close of the Greek rule that the Chinese army was there. The Chinese may in conquering Ta-wan have had to do with many Greeks remaining from the Bactrian kingdom, subverted twenty years before.

Pan-ku tells us that the Massagetae had for their capital

the city Lamti, which was distant from the Chinese metropolis 11,600 li. They had 100,000 soldiers. In the Shī-ki, this city is called Lam-ji 藍市, and is said to be the capital of the Dahae.

In Bayer's history of the Greek kingdom of Bactria the dates of the accession and death of the successive kings are given in the following manner:—Diodotus B.C. 255 to 243, Diodotus the younger B.C. 243 to 220, Enthydemus of Magnesia, B.C. 220 to 196, Menander king of India and Bactria, B.C. 196 to 181, Eucratides B.C. 181 to 146, Eucratides the younger B.C. 146 to 134. This last should be Heliocles.

Bayer gives the impression of a coin of Eucratides, B.C. 148, and another of Diodotus of unknown date.

Sogdiana and Bactria both belonged to the Greeks for a time. They divided these countries into satrapies. Sogdiana is described by Strabo as lying between the Oxus and Jaxartes. The latter river separated it from the Nomades or Scythians, with whom Alexander fought a successful battle. Some old writers speak of Sogdiana and Bactria as separate provinces of one country, which was regularly settled and cultivated as far as the river Jaxartes, now called by the Persians the Sihun. Ptolemy speaks of the Chorasmian country lying between Sogdiana and the Caspian as also belonging to Bactria.

On the east Sogdiana was bounded by the high grounds, which formed the source of the Jaxartes, and which were occupied by the Sacai, who are called Sak by the Chinese. Beyond them to the east, across the mountains, Ptolemy places the Seres in the country, where Yarkand is now the chief city. By the Seres he means the Chinese, then as now masters of that country.

Sogdiana was the modern Bokhara. Khokand was then occupied by the Sakai, Khiva was then the country of the Chorasmians. Kunduz was Bactria with Tocharistan on the east.

These identifications are not exact, but they are an approximation to the truth.

Bayer has discussed the geography of this whole region with minute particularity, paying careful attention to all that the ancient geographers have said. But he has scholarship without eloquence, and he has not attempted to draw, even in a single instance, a vivid picture in light and shade of the long departed past. Yet he calls his book a history.

Yet his book is most valuable as possessing quotations from a great variety of authors, who wrote respecting the affairs of Asia in the time of Alexander and his successors.

I place here the following facts from this book. The country of the Dahae, among whom the Chinese Ambassador Chang-c'hien lived for more than a year, reached that of the Bactrians and the Chorasmians on the east and north, while it stretched to the Caspian on the west.

Arsaces, the founder of the Parthian Empire, lived in early life among the Dahae, and belonged to some nomade tribe. He is called a Scythian. In his wars with Seleucus he was partly held in check by the military power of the Bactrian king, Diodotus. With the help of Diodotus a few years later he was victor in a battle fought with Seleucus.

Diodotus was succeeded by his son of the same name B.C. 243. During his reign extending to B.C. 220 there were three Greek kingdoms in Western Asia—Bactria, Syria, and Pergamos. Pergamos in Asia Minor did not hold its place very long as a powerful state. Syria I suppose to be the Chinese Tiau-chi, as Bactria was Ta-wan, and Parthia, An-sik.

The Chinese accounts of the coinage of Parthia say that it bore the king's countenance on its face: on the back was the face of a woman. In the history of Fan-ye, the capital of Parthia, is stated to have been 和犢 Ho-tu, old sound Wadok. This should be the city Artacouna. It is said to be 25,000 *li* distant from Loyang. This city was also called Aria. It was the chief town of the province of Aria, and lay about 360 English miles to the south-east of the Caspian southern shore. In the year A.D. 87, Parthia sent an embassy to China with a present of lions and an animal called Bubab without horns. In A.D. 97, the governor-general of the Turkish provinces of China, Pan-c'hau, sent Kan-ying on

an embassy to Rome. He arrived at the great sea in the territory of Syria, but the sailors of the west border of Parthia, which we must suppose to be the Persian gulf, told the Chinese envoy that the sea was wide and would require three months with a fair wind to cross it. With adverse winds sometimes two years were required. On this account sailors on leaving provided grain for three years, so long a voyage made people think of home and not a few died on the way. Kan-ying hearing this concluded not to proceed.

This conversation I suppose to have taken place on the shore of the Mediterranean. But it may have been on the Persian gulf. The Chinese text is ambiguous.

In the year A.D. 101, the Parthian king Pacorus, known as Arsaces the 24th, sent an embassy to China. He is called 滿屈 Mank'ut. The letter *t* was probably then pronounced when final as *r*. He sent lions and a great bird from Syria, probably the Ostrich. The name "bird of Parthia" was given to it from this time forward. From Parthia travelling 3,400 *li* west you come to Aman. From Aman proceeding west for 3,600 *li* you arrive at the kingdom of Si-pin. Here, if you go south and cross the river, you reach the kingdom of Ula after travelling 960 *li*. Here you are at the extreme limit of Parthia. From this proceeding south by sea you can go to the Roman empire, a country abounding with remarkable and valuable productions.

The historian says of Rome that the empire contained more than 400 cities, and had several tens of subject kingdoms. City walls were built of stone. The post houses on the roads were plastered with lime. He describes the precious stones, woven fabrics and silver and gold coinage. He also mentions that trade is carried on by Rome with Parthia and India by sea. The intervention of Parthia prevented intercourse till the year A.D. 166, when an embassy from Marcus Aurelius Antoninus* penetrated to China by way of Cochinchina with presents of tortoise-shell, ivory and rhinoceros horn. This probably meant that the embassy arrived by way of Can-

* Antoninus is written 安敦 An-ton.

ton. At that time CochinChina was a part of China. The same historian in his account of India mentions the trade that existed between India and the Roman Empire, and the import into the ports of India of valuable articles from that Empire. In the reign of the Emperor Ho-ti, A.D. 84 to 106, many embassies were sent to China by the land route. But, when the Turkish provinces of China revolted, travelling by this route was stopped. In the year A.D. 159 and subsequently, embassies from India came by the China sea. About A.D. 222 a Roman called 秦倫 Tsin-lun arrived at Nanking, and there saw the Wu Emperor Sun-c'hiuen, the same who figures conspicuously as a general in the "Three kingdoms." Later in the third century, about A.D. 285, a third Roman embassy came. This may have been from Diocletian or from his predecessor. The former in 222 might be from the Emperor Alexander Severus or from Heliogabalus. The information obtained by the Chinese respecting the Roman empire was chiefly from the Buddhists, who came to Loyang in the first, second and third centuries.

The embassies came by sea, and the trade in the Indian seas for the supply of civilized Europe with Oriental products, carried on by the Persian gulf and the Red sea, was not small. The Buddhist missionaries came from the Penjaub, Afghanistan and Parthia to China. Ships from the city of Berenice (the modern Suez) came then to the mouths of the Indus, and carried on trade there at the Buddhist island of Pattala, the sacred home of Kwan-yin, an antitype of the Chinese Puto in the Chu-san Archipelago. From this point the Egyptian ships proceeded to the Malabar coast and the pearl fisheries of Ceylon to obtain the products of those regions. Of all articles of commerce the Romans valued pearls the most. But India also sent to Europe silks and other textile fabrics, as well as precious stones, and the pepper and spices, for which she has always been famous. The Buddhists spoke the language of the Penjaub and the Pali of the region watered by the Ganges. They also had among them speakers of Persian, at least this was probably the tongue with which the Parthian missionaries were most familiar. It was in A.D. 64 that T'sai-an and

T'sin-king were sent to India to bring Buddhist books and teachers to China. They met in Affghanistan (country of the Getae) with Kashiapmadanga and took him back with them. In him and his companion Chu-fa-lan they had translators, who could tell the Chinese statesmen what they knew of western countries. A native of Affghanistan lived at Loyang translating from the year 147 to 186, and another translator, a native of Parthia, a prince of the royal family of the Arsacidae, was in China from A.D. 148 to A.D. 170. He could not fail to know much of Rome and western Asia, and what he knew he would tell. His name was 安世高 An-shi-kau. Another Parthian, named Ubasa Kan-yon, was at Loyang from A.D. 168 to 190, and was also a translator. These foreign translators were followed by others during the decline of the Han dynasty to about the year A.D. 207.

After the establishment of the three kingdoms, Hindoo and other foreign Buddhists resided at Loyang under the dynasty of T'sau-t'sau. Contemporaneous with them there was at Nanking, under the patronage of Sun-c'hiuen's dynasty, a still more numerous band, attracted there by the flourishing condition of Buddhism in the country, of which Nanking and Sucheu were the chief cities. During 60 years about 190 Buddhist books were translated there by five foreign translators. One of these had come to China near to the close of the Han dynasty with a colony of several hundred persons from the country of the Getae (Affghanistan etc.) and had grown up with a familiar knowledge of the language of China as well as his own. He studied Chinese at ten years of age and Sanscrit at 13. He knew in all six languages. At the time when the Han dynasty was falling, he took his departure with several tens of his countrymen, and went from Loyang to the Nanking country. He translated into Tibetan as well as into Chinese, at least his knowledge of the 戎 Yung language is mentioned as a qualification for his duties. Enough has been said to show that the knowledge of the western world, acquired during the Han dynasty and the three kingdoms, B.C. 140 to A.D. 260, by the Chinese was derived in the first instance by their own people, when they had travelled far enough to learn

foreign languages sufficiently well to obtain information respecting important geographical facts. This knowledge was greatly increased, when missionaries from the Ganges, the Penjaub, the Parthian kingdom and countries near came to China to teach Buddhism. It was by means of these men that several embassies by sea, arriving from Europe at Canton during the period mentioned, were able to hold intelligible communication with the Chinese court at Loyang and at Nanking.

SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT.

(*Reprinted from the "North-China Herald" of the
14th March, 1883.*)

To the Editor of the

"NORTH-CHINA DAILY NEWS."

SIR,—To what was said in my paper on this subject, read on the 9th January at a meeting of the Asiatic Society, may I add here the following statements?

Considerable difficulty has been felt by investigators in identifying places by the number of Chinese miles recorded in the dynastic histories. But much may be learned from them notwithstanding. M. Vivien de St Martin has done the most in this department of inquiry. He finds it safe to take five Chinese *li* as the equivalent for an English mile in laying down the route of Hiuen Tsang in the Tang dynasty. At that time Ch'ang-an, in 109 degrees east longitude, was the capital. In the early Han period the capital was also there. In the later Han it was removed to Lo-yang, in 112 degrees. In the distances given in the How Han Shu we must therefore subtract about 900 *li* to make the numbers given harmonize with those of Pan-koo and Si Ma-chien. In the Wei period the capital was in Shansi, at the present Ta-t'ung-fu. This is four degrees east of Si-an, and we must subtract 1,200 *li* from the distances of the historians mentioned.

Such is the principle. But if we proceed to compare the longitudes of places which are known, such as Samercand, Bokhara or Artocoana, one of the old capitals of Parthia, we shall find that even to divide by five in order to find the English miles is not enough. Artacoana, in 61 degrees, was distant from Loyang 25,000 *li*. The difference in degrees is 51, or 3,600 miles. Eight *li* to a mile is, then, the rate for the How Han-shu. The route would be that which leads from Kashgar to Badakshan, across the Imaus mountains. In the same way Khoten, with a longitude of 80 degrees, is given as 11,700 *li* from Loyang, and the quotient is $6\frac{1}{2}$ *li* per English mile. The diminution of the quotient is accounted for by the direction of the road, which is generally straight till it turns south when near Kashgar. In the Wei-shu, which gives distances from the new capital, then in northern Shansi, the extent of the journey to the Parthian capital, there called Wei-su, is given as 21,500 *li*. This city, not yet identified, was the capital of a kingdom which bordered on Persia, and lay to the north-west of the Tochari or Massagetae. The distance, as given in the same history, of the capital of the Massagetae, Lukamti, from the Chinese metropolis, is 14,500 *li*. It lay to the west of Badakshan, 弗敵沙, which has the longitude of $70\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. This yields about six *li* to the mile. Soon afterwards the Getae removed the capital of their nation to what may be Balkh, in longitude 67. The name is given Bokla, and also looks like Bokhara, which is in 65 degrees, but this is too far to the north, and the account says that the Scythian king moved westward on this occasion a distance of 2,100 *li*. If the city meant is Balkh, the number of *li* to the mile is only four. It was this Scythian King who conquered India.

In the Wei-shu, the capital of the Roman Empire is stated to be Antu. The Wei dynasty lasted from A.D. 386 to 532. Can this city be Byzantium, the seat of the Emperors? Or Antioch the Asiatic capital? Or is it Rome? It is said to be 10,000 *li* westward across the sea from Syria (Tiau-chi) by a winding route, and no less than 39,400 *li* from the Chinese metropolis. Taking the difference of longitude at 113, less 29, or eight-four degrees, we obtain a quotient of eight *li* per mile, supposing the city to be Constantinople. "The Roman Empire is," says the historian, "called the Ta-t'sin because the people resemble the Chinese in height, upright conduct, clothes, carriages and flags. They have in their country the five cereals, hemp, and the

mulberry. They tend silkworms and cultivate the ground. On the south-east they have commercial intercourse with China through Cochin China, and by water they also communicate (by the modern Yunnan) through the department of Yung-c'hang in Yi-chow."

How the traders of the Roman Empire communicated with China by way of Yunnan is not stated. It may have been by Birmah, through the site of the modern Bhamo and the river Irawaddi, or it may have been by the Cambodia river, or the S'angkoi, running through Tung-king to the sea. Of these the S'angkoi is the most likely.

The conquest of Cochin China and of Yunnan was made by the Chinese in the reign of Han Wu-ti, about a century before the Christian era, and cities were then founded in those regions which became trading centres. Here commerce flourished so long as the empire was powerful. It was thus made possible, by means of the S'angkoi, the Cambodia river and the Irawaddi, to have commercial intercourse with the Indian Ocean, and so with Europe. In the Wei-shu we are told that the Roman Empire had intercommunication with China by this route as well as by Cochin China. The city Yung-c'hang is mentioned, and this was the modern Yunnan Fu. We therefore seem to be shut up to the Cambodia river and the S'angkoi. The chief object sought by European traders would be silk robes for the rich inhabitants of western cities, and the reason of these routes being chosen would be that the Canton river was not known at that time to the traders.

The Golden Chersonese of Ptolemy is believed to be Cambodia. What he calls the Magnus Sinus beyond it may be the China sea. After the victorious expedition into Parthia by Trajan in the second Christian century, the eastern trade of the Roman Empire became more adventurous than before, and merchants travelled farther in the direction of China. They went to Cattigara, which was a port leading to the interior capital of Thinae. Marinus described a voyage from the mouth of the Ganges to the farthest point of Cattigara. The first portion of this voyage was south-west; the second portion was north-west. It may well be supposed therefore that the ship referred to passed the island on which the modern Singapore stands, and reached the mouth of the Cambodia river, and then perhaps the mouth of the S'angkoi, ten degrees farther north on the coast of what was then China. The port he calls Sada would be somewhere near Singapore. Marinus

also describes a voyage of twenty days by a navigator named Alexander, from the Chersonese to Zaba, in a northerly direction.

Since the common Buddhist name of China is Chi-na, 支那, the Hindoos in the Birmese peninsula would use this name for China. But the Chinese residents in Cambodia would pronounce it *tina*, because to this day in Annam the initials *s* and *ch* of Chinese words take usually the form *t*. Hence the name learned by Ptolemy and Marinus was the Sanscrit name of the Chinese, modified by local Chinese pronunciation.

The Chinese settlements in Cochin-China are described in the after Han history in the following manner. Kiauchi the old Tonquin, had twelve cities under it. The chief city was 11,000 *li* from Loyang. In one of the cities boats were made by melting copper. The last of the twelve was constituted a city A.D. 43. South of Kiauchi was Cochin, 九真, at a distance of 11,580 *li* south of Loyang. Of houses there were 46,513. Of inhabitants there were 209,894. In all there were five cities in the jurisdiction of this department. The southernmost was Jinan (Nitnam). It is 13,400 *li* distant from Loyang. It was first included in the Chinese Empire in the latter part of the third century before Christ. The department embraced five cities, 18,263 houses, and 100,676 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood of one of the cities, called Luyung, gold was found.

The distances require us to count about ten *li* to a mile at sixty to the degree, assuming the road to be straight.

In the times of Ptolemy, European traders on arriving at the Cambodia river, or in Annam, were already in China, and from the account in the Wei Shu it appears that facilities existed for conveying imports and exports to west China by the Yunnan route, and to central China by that of Annam. By this second route the Roman embassy of A.D. 166 must have come, which reached the Emperor's court on the banks of the Yellow River.

J. EDKINS.

DISCUSSION ON DR. EDKINS'S PAPER.

In regard to Dr. Edkins's conjecture in respect of the words *Li-han* and *regnum*, Dr. Hirth said that at the time *Li-han* (or

Li-küen (*Li-gion*?) as the pronunciation is handed down for this name) was used by the Chinese, *regnum* was a forbidden word with the Romans; no Roman would have dared to speak of *regnum* after the expulsion of the kings, a period which coincided with the beginning of history in China—the end of the mythological period of the Chow dynasty. Rome was called “*res publica*” at one time, and “*imperium*” later on, but not *regnum* or kingdom. He thinks the late Mr. Taintor’s conjecture, though no more than a guess either, of the name *Li-küen* being connected with the word “*legiones*,” the word which represented the conquering power of the Roman Empire, being more natural. He remarked upon the difficulty of finding copies in Shanghai of the Chinese works required for investigation of the subject treated in Dr. Edkins’s paper, such as de Guignes’ *Histoire des Huns*, Pauthier’s “*Mémoire sur l’authenticité de l’inscription de Si-ngan-fu*,” and the various Chinese histories, all of which were conspicuous by their absence from the Library of the Asiatic Society and which, though procurable in Chinese book shops would be an expensive article for a private student. The only place where such studies could be made with success was Peking, as had been shown by the able essays on the subject of Dr. Bretschneider. It was therefore altogether very difficult to form an opinion on the identification of the names of countries mentioned in Chinese works. Next to the travels of Marco Polo, he thought the early relations of the Chinese with western countries, were one of the most interesting questions for Europeans in Asia. He then described the method followed by the Chinese historians in treating of western countries; the manner in which their chapters were subdivided, and the grouping of facts connected with the respective countries. He suggested that it would form a very interesting study to take the distances given in Chinese books, and work them out to see if any definite conclusions could be arrived at in the identification of the countries. In every case the Chinese historian gave the distance of the place, in so many thousand *li*, from the capital of China; in some cases it was given in round numbers, say 10,000 *li*, and in others they give it more definitely, such as 22,300. To determine the distances, they had to ascertain whether, at the date the historian wrote, the capital of China from which he measured his distances was Si-ngan-fu, Loyang or Nanking; and they would also have to place the capitals of the foreign countries described. The distances were evidently calculated by days’ marches, by one or

other of three overland routes. Then as to the facts stated in Chinese books in reference to foreign countries, they would have to be satisfied if out of a series of 12 facts or statements of products of the country, &c., they could get half a dozen to tally with what was known to be produced in any given country. It was mentioned in some of the ancient Chinese books, that *Ta-tsin* produced lions; but he did not think lions were produced in Italy.

Mr. Haas—Yes.

Dr. Hirth—Were they not imported from the African colonies? They were not “growing wild.”

Mr. Haas—At the time of the Greek colonies, the country was infested with lions.

Dr. Hirth thought that no one coming from Rome to China would have mentioned lions as one of the special productions of that country, seeing that on his way to China he would pass through countries where lions were more common.

Dr. Hirth concluded his remarks by expressing his high appreciation of Dr. Edkins's paper, which had added some important facts to our information in regard to the Chinese knowledge of western countries especially inasmuch as it had drawn attention to a new source of information from which the Chinese may have derived their knowledge of western countries. Hitherto we believed that the chapters on this subject contained in the various dynastic histories were based on the reports of tribute bearers and special embassies as well as those of Kan-ying, the military explorer who reached the coast of one of the western seas. Dr. Edkins's paper points to the probability of Bactrian, Indian and other “translators and missionaries” who were engaged in the translations of Buddhist books at the court of China, having communicated their own knowledge of the west to the Chinese historians in the east.

The Chairman said, that in considering this question there were two ways which suggested themselves to him of arriving at the connection between China and the West in ancient times—they would have to look at what China said with regard to the West and what the West said with regard to China. In modern times China had excluded itself from other nations, and Pliny said that such was the case in his time; and yet Pliny mentioned a variety of articles, in the form of luxuries of high value, in use among the Romans, as having come from the land which Dr. Edkins had identified with the North of China, and if this were

so it was a very remarkable coincidence. They knew that certain productions of some distant eastern country, in which the Greeks and Romans very greatly delighted, abounded in a very special manner in China at the present day. He was not aware of these articles being produced in any other countries to anything like the extent and value to which they were found in China. But apart from this hypothetical course of reasoning they knew that early in the Christian era the imperial power of Rome greatly extended itself in the direction of Central Asia, and countries were mentioned in the course of the paper before them which they could identify very clearly. Was there not a possibility of Chinese representatives having met with representatives of Rome in these parts? They had evidence of the clearest character that there were military expeditions from China to the far west, and they would be safe in assuming that no small amount of information would, by means of these expeditions, reach China, with regard to the great empire of Rome. If any western countries were known in Central Asia or in the places mentioned, they might be sure Rome was in particular; and whether Ta-tsin might be considered as descriptive of Rome or not, he had no doubt that in these countries as much information was obtained in regard to China on the one hand and in regard to Rome on the other as was possible under the circumstances. He had been led to believe that in early times there was a mutual knowledge between the east and the west which they were apt to overlook. There could not have been the interchange of products which they knew to have existed without this mutual knowledge.

Dr. Hirth observed, with regard to the parallel which Mr. Muirhead had drawn between the knowledge of China possessed by Rome and the knowledge of Rome possessed by China, that if Ta-tsin was actually identical with Ancient Rome, and if Fu-lin was Byzantium of the middle ages there seemed to be no doubt that the ancient Chinese knew a great deal more about Rome than the Romans had ever known about China. The Seres whether quoted in Horace or Virgil had been to the best instructed Roman only a name, the name of a silk producing nation who were at home at some distance beyond the terminus of Alexander's campaign; but there their knowledge of China ~~was~~ at an end, whereas the information about the countries of Ta-tsin and Fu-lin, such as it is recapitulated in the work of Ma-tuan-lin for instance, is quite as full of details as is the store

of notices regarding China possessed by many a well educated European even now-a-days.

The Chairman said the undoubted fact of the existence of the Suez Canal in ancient times proved that there was a greater amount of intercourse between the West and the East than was generally recognised. They ought to express their indebtedness to Dr. Edkins for his valuable paper on a subject of great interest.





ARTICLE II.

COREA.*

Extracts from Mr. F. SCHERZER's French translation of the
Chao-hsien-chih, and Bibliographical Notice. Translated
into English by CHARLES GOULD.

I.—BIBLIOGRAPHIC NOTICE.

The Koreans possess two kinds of writing: the one, devoted to literary works and reserved for editing certain official documents, is in the Chinese character; the other, that is to say the Korean writing properly so called, is alphabetic, and permits of the exact representation of the sounds of the spoken language; this is especially employed by the lower orders and in printing popular editions.

The memoir on Corea of which I offer a translation is written in Chinese, and bears the title Tchao-sien-tohe 朝鮮志 with the intimation 不著才人名 denoting an anonymous author; it figures in the vast collection known as Y-hai-tchou-tchen 藝海珠塵 which comprises no less than 165 different works. This important collection was compiled in the middle of the last century by Ou-chen-lan 吳省蘭 and corrected by Shu-y-yuen 徐以垣. This work was described for the first time by Mr. A. Wylie in his valuable "Notes on Chinese literature" as follows—"Chaou-sien-che is an account of Corea including Geography and Customs, by a native of that country, whose name has not been preserved; but it appears to have been written in the latter part of the Ming dynasty." All that I myself can affirm is that this memoir is subsequent in point of age to the first year of Shuen-te 宣德 that is to say, to 1465, and prior to the conquest of China by the Tartar Manchus in 1616.

* Read before the Society on the 27th February, 1883.

My translation has been made from a manuscript which I had copied from the original text during my stay in Peking, its accuracy being verified by a collation, (for which I am indebted to the kindness of the much lamented Archimandrite Palladius.) with the example of the Y-hai-tchou-tchen existing among the treasures of the fine library of the Russian mission in Peking.

II.—CUSTOMS.

The Koreans profess a profound reverence for virtue; they hold literary studies in honor, and show a great inclination for them. An amiable urbanity is common, and they preserve the traditions of an exquisite politeness. At the death of one of the literati or of a functionary his relatives conform to the family rites of "Tchou-ouen-koiung" in the carrying out of the obsequies, mourning and sacrifices. Most of the Koreans, upon the death of their father, or mother, construct over the tomb a small house which they inhabit for three years. Those who fail in the duties of filial piety, lose all consideration in the eyes of the educated (literati) who cease to regard them as belonging to their order. During the whole time of mourning, some take only boiled rice, and abstain entirely from salt and cooked meats, others prepare with their own hands their food as well as the sacrifices offered on their relative's tombs. Marriages are arranged through the medium of a go-between, and sending presents. No alliance can be contracted between two persons of the same family. All the literati and functionaries have in their houses altars where they sacrifice in honour of their ancestors at the four periods of the year. Sons and grandsons abstain from rich food on the anniversary of their parent's death. They offer sacrifices before their tablets placed in the centre of a kind of altar in the form of niche.

Functionaries of the sixth rank and upwards sacrifice to their ancestors up to the third generation.

Those of the seventh rank and below it sacrifice to theirs up to the second generation.

Ordinary people only sacrifice to their defunct fathers and mothers.

If the oldest son of the principal wife has no male children, she adopts one of her other sons, and in case none of these has male posterity she adopts one of the sons which her husband may have by a secondary wife, whom she makes heir to the name in place of the eldest son.

The Coreans also offer sacrifices in honour of those of their relatives who may have died without posterity.

In case neither the principal wife, nor either of the second ones have born male children, they register an act of adoption of one of the younger sons of some member of their family.

Among the families of the literati, the wives upon the death of their husband take a vow of perpetual widowhood.

One of the literati or a functionary, on losing his principal wife, must wait three years before he can marry again, unless he has exceeded forty years in age without having a male child. In which case he can, on the order of his parents, contract a second marriage, after a year has elapsed from the death of his first wife.

The king annually offers a sacrifice in honour of Sien-nong, and proceeds in person to the ploughing of a consecrated field, whose products are destined to serve as offerings at the time of the principal sacrifices.

The Queen also offers a sacrifice in honour of Tien-tsan, she raises silkworms in the gardens situated at the end of the palace. She presides at the labours of the women who live in the Royal residence.

Annually, at the end of the autumn, the king invites the old men to a banquet, and profits by the occasion to raise, by one step, the rank of each of the functionaries charged with overlooking its preparation.

The king also gives a banquet, of which he personally does the honours to the sons and grandsons who have distinguished themselves by filial piety.

The Queen, on her part, offers a banquet, in the inner palace, to which are invited widows faithful to the memory of their husbands, and on the occasion makes a general distribution of presents.

Once a year the king sends rice as a present to centenarian old men.

Each month he causes wine and meats to be served from his own table, to great dignitaries over seventy years of age, and to the father, mother, and wife of those of his subjects who may have distinguished themselves by service and also to the wives of great dignitaries. In spring and autumn, the king gives a banquet to officials of the highest rank, who having arrived at an advanced age, may enjoy a reputation for unquestionable virtue. This banquet is called the banquet of merit tested by age.

To those of his subjects who have distinguished themselves by filial piety, fraternal affection, fidelity to the memory of a defunct spouse, or by distinguished acts of virtue the king accords, according to the circumstances, a promotion or presents, or even an honorific tablet, or a dispensation from statute labour? [Corvées.]

The king decrees, during their life time, public eulogies to officials who have made themselves conspicuous by integrity, and on their death, he sees to the employment of their sons and grandsons.

The sons and grandsons of subjects who have died upon the field of battle also receive assistance and are nominated to enter the public service.

On the death of a high dignitary related to the king mourning is general at the court, and the conduct of business is suspended. The king appoints a master of ceremonies, to convey his condolences, to offer sacrifices and preside at the funeral.

The king likewise sends a master of ceremonies to preside at the obsequies of his subjects who may have deceased at a distance from their families and in the fulfilment of their duties.

The king defrays the cost of the obsequies of members of the Royal family of inferior station, but related at least in the second degree.

The king contributes towards the cost of the funerals of members of the Academy, and of censors without distinction

of rank as also to those, upon the occasion of the death whether of father or mother, of one of those functionaries. The king has constructed a magazine called Hoei-heou-chou which contains coffins for the use of poor families.

The names of individuals of bad reputation, of those possessing ill-acquired wealth, as also of widows who have married a second time, are inscribed on the registers of three tribunals. The children and grandchildren whose names figure on these registers are excluded from the society of the literati.

When five children of any family attain literary grades the king distributes rice to their parents each year, and on the death of these latter sends an officer to assist at their funerals and decrees them an honorific title.

The king invites the civil and military graduates to a banquet called Ngeun-jong-yeu [Banquet of subjects distinguished by the Sovereign] and orders the authorities to give their relatives "aubades" (alms?) and to carry them wine in his name. This ceremony is called Jong-tsin-yeu [Banquet of relatives of subjects distinguished by the Sovereign.] The king likewise sends officer to offer sacrifices on the tombs of their parents (relatives)? This ceremony is called Jong-fenn [Honorable Burial.]

The king makes presents of rice to those of his subjects who are classed first in the examinations.

He grants assistance in money to all people whose poverty prevents them from marrying, or establishing their children opportunely, or from burying their dead within the period demanded by the rites.

The king provides the material for clothes for those of his subjects, who, being deprived of family, have not the wherewithal to cloth and provide for themselves, and for old men who are without means of sustenance.

The members of the Houng-ouen-kouan [College of high literature] go every other day in turn to pass the night at this college. The king goes there daily and assists at the readings. Where the ministers of state and censors are present by turns, it even happens that the conferences are prolonged throughout the night, until all obscure points have been elucidated.

Officers of the first rank who have arrived at the age of seventy, are refused permission to retire when their concurrence is deemed indispensable for the service of the state and the king presents them as a mark of his good will, with books, a table and a baton of old age. (*Note*,—the batons of old age were terminated by a cross ending in a turtle dove head, this has been replaced later on by a dragon's head.)

The king decrees honorific titles to the ancestors up to the third generation of high dignitaries and of officials of the two first classes.

When the father and mother of one of the literati or of a civil or military officer have reached the age of seventy years, one of their sons receives an order to return to the family home to take care of them. When they have reached the age of eighty, two of their sons are sent back, but when they arrive at ninety all the children are ordered to rejoin them, in order that they may surround them with the most careful attention.

Annually, during the summer months, a distribution of ice is made among the members of the Royal family and the high civil or military dignities. This is extended to those high dignitaries who are aged and past work, to the sick in the Houo-jeu-chou and to prisoners. Under the most ancient dynasties, equally with the present, it has been the practice to record in a repertory called San-kang-sin-ché, all fine deeds by which faithful subjects have rendered themselves illustrious, pious sons, and widows who have preferred not to survive their husbands. This book is translated in all tongues [*Note*,—**方言** Fang-yen which signifies local languages or patois, the Korean pronunciation varying exceedingly according to the province], and is universally distributed both within and without the capital; so that from the most tender age the children of both sexes may not be ignorant of the fine traits of virtue which are related in it.

The Government has founded two establishments called Tchang-kun-kouan and Yang-sin-kou where five hundred doctors and batchelors are entertained as boarders, whose sole occupation is the study of literature and morality. Those of them who arrive at the age of fifty without having suc-

ceeded in their examinations, are granted employment by special favour of the king.

The king also nominates to a position in one of the four colleges of the North, South, East, or West, where the sons and brothers of officials are brought up, those of the literati who, having failed in their examinations for Bachelor or Doctor, prove themselves to possess a perfect acquaintance with one of the following works, the Siao-hio or the Tse-chou.

The king has installed the professors of Tong-meung 童蒙, [note,—these characters signify children less than twelve years old], whose duties are to instruct common people children more than eight years old, whose parents have insufficient resources to send them to school. In each sub-prefecture and in each district there is established a school having four divisions exactly on the model of Tchang-kun-kouan.

The inspector, [note,—觀察使, Kouan-tcha-che, an office corresponding with that of Tao Tai 道台], makes a round of these establishments, he inspects both professors and pupils, makes them explain the text in his presence, and gives them subjects of composition, keeps an exact account of their application or work and rewards or punishes them according to their zeal or indolence.

In spring and autumn a sacrifice is offered called Tche-tsai. The Inspector, the prefects and the sub-prefects proceed there in person and invite all the pupils to a great banquet.

Twice a year, in spring and autumn, the high dignitaries of Y-tchang-fou, of the six *ministries* and of the different administrations give out subjects for composition to the pupils of Tchang-kun-kouang—after having corrected the written themes they class them in order of merit. The names of the authors of the three first compositions are transmitted to a commission which proceeds to a new examination of the compositions and verifies the exactitude of the award.

The pupils of Tchang-kun-kouan who have satisfied the examiners occupy public positions.

Those who study in the four colleges are examined on a stated day in the sixth moon of each year. They follow

moreover a daily course where they are questioned, and assist in the explanation of the texts.

At the close of these examinations fifty of the pupils are nominated pupils of the first class and have to compete again to obtain the degree of Batchelor or Doctor.

The same rules are observed in each province. The king's sons go daily to inform themselves of the condition of their father's health, and are present at his meals. Three times a day they assist at conferences where they both read, and discuss the text with their professors and the guests of the palace. They go to meet their professors, and reconduct them to the foot of the steps.

On the fifteenth day of each month they join together for a common reading preceded by a banquet. Each time that they have terminated the reading of one of their canonical books, a great banquet is given, a distribution of presents made.

Functionaries of inferior rank, recently promoted ought, within ten days from the time of their nomination, to visit the members of Y-tchang-fou, the minister of officials, and of the administration to which they belong.

There is a palace called Tchong-y-kien, which serves for the residence of the descendants of kings of former dynasties who receive a subsidy consisting of rice and the revenue of certain territories devoted to their maintenance.

There is a formal prohibition to cultivating the area of the sepulchres of the kings of the former dynasties of Sin-lo, of Po-tsi and of Kao-ku-li.

Temples have been erected in honour of the founders of the ancient dynasties, and of persons who have rendered themselves illustrious by lofty actions and virtues. The local authorities repair to these in the spring and autumn of each year to offer sacrifices.

Outside the capital on the north, may be seen an uncovered altar where in the spring and autumn annual sacrifices are offered by the official of Han-tchang-fou for souls without an asylum. The same ceremony is performed in each prefecture, and in each district.

During the winter season, the king causes mat-coverings to be distributed among the prisoners, during the summer, he has their prison cleaned, and their cangue and their irons moistened, so that these wretches may not suffer too much from the rigour of the cold, or from the intensity of the heat.

The king nominates an official expert in the act of healing, to whom he gives supplies of medicine appropriated for the treatment of sick prisoners.

The government distributes clothing and rice among those prisoners whose poverty prevents them from maintaining themselves.

Outside the capital there is a granary called Tchang-ping-tchan, [*note*,—or granary of uniform price, this institution goes back so far as the Han dynasty. It is due to the sagacity of the Emperor Ou Ti.—*Vide* Sze-tche-tong-kien, k. 6. f. 29] where rice can be purchased when the price of cereals has augmented. The directors of this granary buy up rice when it has reached its lowest value, which permits of their reselling it cheaply to poor people during times of scarcity.

There also exists a granary whose directors make loans in the spring to cultivators of the quantity of grain necessary for sowing their fields; this is made good to the granary in autumn, and remains there till the following spring when it is again lent out; by this means the sowing is renewed annually.

When inundations or drought have produced scarcity the king opens establishments throughout the kingdom called Tchen-t'si-tchang, [*note*,—establishments of public assistance like the institutions founded in 1879 in Chantung, Honan, Chan-si and Tchili] where assistance is distributed to the population.

Each year, in spring and autumn, the heads of the district and the sub-prefects proceed, conformably with the rites, to the ceremony of Siang-yu-tsiou [*note*,—literally the libations of the village. This custom dates from the highest antiquity, and recalls the love feasts of the ancients. *Vide*.—The Li-ki, k. 10 f. 45.]

In the provinces, the village people elect a chief to whom each one must remit a contribution of rice and cloth.

In the spring and autumn, the inhabitants assemble at a banquet prepared at the common cost with a view to strengthening the bonds of mutual affection, and of affirming the concord uniting them.

When an illness or unforeseen catastrophe happens the people assist one another, and when one of them happens to die they assess themselves to provide the cost of the funeral, and of a double coffin, and ground for a grave. Upon the death of an official belonging to the third class or who may have exercised the functions of censor or of academician his sons and grandsons receive promotions, and in the first month of each year submit to examinations which permit of their attaining employment proportionate to their talents.

If the children of the defunct have not yet obtained any step, the officials of the third rank, and upwards, are authorized to interest themselves for the most studious of them, and to recommend them to the minister of public employment who examines them in the canonical books, and gives them employment proportionate to their talents. In the event of their giving, after their promotion, proofs of incapacity, the official who has recommended them incurs severe blame.

The competition for the degree of licentiate takes place every third year. The examination is divided into three trials: the first consists of two dissertations upon the books of Confucius; the second in a poetic composition and the historical resumé of a reign; the last comprises a series of questions to which the candidate must reply in writing.

The competition for the degree of doctor is divided into three parts: first the candidate must present a dissertation upon the Sse-chou and the Ou-king.

When this trial has been undergone in a satisfactory fashion the candidate is admissible for the second examination, consisting in a poetic composition and the historical resumé of a reign.

To satisfy the last trial the candidate must answer in writing questions based on all possible matters.

The king personally interrogates the candidates who have fulfilled this series of examinations and proceeds to definitively class them.

An extraordinary examination session can be held on the anniversary of the king's birth.

At the time of great fêtes, the king proceeds to Hio-kouan, assists at the lessons which are given there and finds the opportunity of granting extraordinary promotions, and of making an exceptional examination of those whom he judges worthy of a literary degree.

The king is in the habit of offering frequent sacrifices in honour of Confucius, and of visiting different colleges to assist at lessons and conferences, where the professors and pupils are admitted or even to examine these latter in the rendering of difficult passages of the classics, as to their skill in shooting with the bow, or to give them subjects for composition.

At the close of the examination, the list of successful candidates is proclaimed in the Throne Chamber.

The king makes them presents consisting of wine, gilded flowers, and a parasol of honour, makes them assist at a theatrical representation, and then has them reconducted to the sound of music which escorts them for three days as a mark of honour.

Those pupils who have distinguished themselves upon the occasion of a visit of the king to the royal college see their names proclaimed on the very day itself in the throne chamber. They receive by order of the king a saddled horse, a court robe, and an ivory tablet. This distinction is of a degree more elevated than that granted in the preceding case.

At the commencement of the year, as well as of that of the great cold, and at the principal anniversaries, the king accompanied by the Princes, his sons, and by the body of officials, proceeds to the ceremony of the Ouang-kûe-li [*note*,—that of the three kneelings and nine prostrations]. On each of these occasions he sends an embassy to carry a letter of homage to the Emperor of China. The king, always followed by the princes, his sons, and by the body of officials, makes the

salutation of the four prostrations in honour of the Imperial throne.

The king kneeling takes the letter which he places in the hands of his envoy, then makes three salutations, and accompanies outside the chamber the letter addressed to the throne, enclosed in a yellow box and preceded by bearers of emblems.

The king observes the same ceremonial when he goes to meet ambassadors returning from China; he receives them beneath a tent decorated with silks of five colours.

The king presides personally over the choice of presents to form the tribute destined for the Emperor of China.

The members of the royal family, as soon as they have arrived at the age of fifteen years, go to study at the college Tsong-hio. They daily decide by lot the duties which they should complete in order to merit a note (mark?) of satisfaction.

The minister of rites has the pupils of the four colleges interrogated monthly upon the matters which have formed the subject of their studies.

The names of pupils from the Capital, and from the province, the works which they have studied day by day, the names, titles, and qualities of their professors are registered in the archives of this minister.

Promotion is granted the Professor, if three among his pupils have been classed first in the competition for the degree of Doctor, or even if more than ten have obtained the degree of Batchelor or of licentiate.

The costume worn at the celebration of sacrifices, the costumes of the court, the official costumes are in all points similar to the Chinese costumes, [*note*,—this passage clearly shows us that the memoir was written before the Manchu conquerors had modified the Chinese costume, *i.e.* before 1616.] At the four great epochs of the year, at the eight great festivals, and at the end of each quarter, the people renew the hearth fire.

When a child is abandoned by its parents, the Han-tchang-fou or local authority, takes it, feeds it, clothes it, receives it under its protection, and charges itself henceforward with its maintenance.

ARTICLE III.
RESEARCHES INTO THE GEOLOGY OF
FORMOSA.*

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ON a journey from the South Cape to Takow and on different other excursions which I undertook during my stay in Taiwan, I had occasion to make some observations on the mineralogical composition and geological formation of Formosa.

I am aware that they are imperfect and only comprise some parts of that island, a fact which might deter me from giving these notes publicity, were it not, that even a few established facts may be of interest and further the object of true Geology, which is to arrive at a complete knowledge of the constitution and history of every part of our globe.

Formosa must still be considered as a "terra incognita." We know that large mountains nearly bisect the island, that the plain on the west is inhabited by the Chinese and the East by Aborigines, so-called Savages. We know what her soil produces, but we know not, what her soil consists of and what treasures are hidden under it except in the northern parts, where now Coal mines and Petroleum wells are worked. Names have been given to the most prominent peaks and their heights have been ascertained or estimated; but beyond that nothing is known of the outlines of these mountain ranges or the valleys between them; and of the physical aspects of the East coast we are still less able to judge, it being closed to our view. This is however not astonishing. Those whom their vocation leads to this island, have other pursuits to attend to and those, who did spend a few days in the interior, went there out of curiosity or for Ethnological studies. The

* Read before the Society on the 17th April, 1883.

attraction of the Savages naturally led to a neglect of the country they live in. hence few observations of a geographical and none whatever of a geological nature have ever been made or brought to notice, at least as far as the South and centre of Formosa are concerned.

Want of time has also prevented me from making long travels of exploration and obliged me to confine myself to South Formosa only, *i.e.* to that part of the Island which lies between the 22nd and 23rd degrees of latitude.

The following are the results of my investigations:—

The southernmost end of Formosa on an average 5 miles broad, is protected against the waters of the ocean by two hill ranges, which run along the east and west coast; the one, called the Gooswa Promontory extends from the South West Cape in a straight line 7 miles northwards, its two highest points in the middle and towards the end being 538 feet and 627 feet high, respectively. The other range commences with the South Cape, runs gradually rising towards northwest, opens into a broad plateau and turning to N.E. terminates at the Savage village Shamalee. Four miles to the north west of the South Cape is a peculiarly rugged hill, 1,035 feet high, from which the land slopes gradually towards the east range forming another plateau. From Shamalee westward extends a double peaked ridge, and south of this the land is further divided by two parallel ranges, rising to more than 2,000 feet, one of which terminates in a cone shaped mountain,—Remarkable Peak,—1,083 feet above the level of the sea. East of the Gooswa Promontory and Bay hill, which is a small isolated hill, south of Expedition Bay, lies a level tract of land, at its widest part 3 *li* broad. In the middle of this, at the foot of the Shamalee range is the District Capital Hêng-ch'un-hsien, and in its northwest corner at the mouth of a broad river lies Chê-chêng *sive* Langchiao. A mountain *vis à vis* to this walled village and bearing the same name forms the link between the hills south and north, divided from the one by a deep chasm and from the other by the Langchiao river.

Turning now to the composition of all these capes, moun-

tain and hill ranges, we find in the cliffs at South Cape abundant remains of corals, which make up almost the entire mass. The crest of the east range is a series of limestone rocks with fractures and fissures, and the west range shows the same towards the seaside, but its top and inland slopes, as well as the surface of South Cape and the eastern slope of that range are covered with calcareous sand. The beach round Kualiang Bay consists of fine coral sand, and numerous recent Zoophytes red and white are found. The other mountains are thickly wooded in luxuriant tropical vegetation, the trees and shrubs which cover them up to the summits, have protected their surface from the wasting influence of atmospheric agencies, their underlying formation therefore is not so apparent to cursory observations. At one spot, however, the waters of an extensive spring have laid it open and disclosed strata of limestone. This spring, by the way, is situated in the territory of the Kualuts in a beautiful forest. Women and children of the savage tribe were sitting around it and filling their bamboo tubes with water, when I approached on the way to their village. As my escort informed me, this spring has high qualities in curing wounds and smallpox. It belongs probably to the class "Earthy waters" of which the chief contents are sulphate and carbonate of lime. The cone of Remarkable Peak is of compact limestone, limestone rocks reach out of the water at several places along the shore of Kualiang Bay, and within the walls of Heng-ch'un-hsien I again found a large pile of Limestone Rocks. The soil which forms the upper layers in this district is throughout of argillo-calcareous nature, varying from soft earthy shale at the foot of Remarkable Peak to fine yellow clay exposed by the rivulets of the plain.

On the mountains between Langchiao and the Pacific Coast "bright flames" have often been seen "jutting out of the hard-baked earth," a statement which, as I have not been there myself, must at present suffice for our researches into the composition of that region, though all details as to the height at which this phenomenon was seen and as to the nature of the ground are wanting. The hardbaked earth probably was

thale or mudstone, similar to that, which I found on Sugar loaf hill (see further on). The flame may be caused by the ignition of sulphuretted hydrogen, which would point to volcanic action, or by the ignition of the vapours of a petroleum spring, which would point to underlying strata of coal or bituminous shale and sandstone cavities. On the whole I think the latter explanation more probable. Coal indeed has been shown to me by the District Magistrate as having been found within the limits of his jurisdiction. The Langchiao river finally gives evidence of Sandstone by the reddish fragments which it contains.

Let us now follow the military road, which connects this southernmost part of Formosa with the great plain. Immediately after leaving Langchiao it passes over the east side of a low hill, apparently a sanddune, which forms Langchiao point, goes along the bay of the same name on a strand of coral sand and ascends the slopes of a sugar loaf shaped hill, 411 feet high, which fall steep to the sea and consist of mudstone containing iron. From here stretches the Liliang ridge 6 miles northward, the two southern summits of which rise to the heights of 2,263 and 2,437 feet, and the northern one, near the town of Hongkong, to 3,365 feet.* The gentle slopes of this range form a "raised beach," below which a second one has formed, covered with large sandstone pebbles, débris of the formerly surfworn upperterrace. Some of these are red, others variegated, showing yellow, bluish, reddish and purple lines, some shew streaks of quartz, all of them sparks of mica. Corals and coralsand do not reach beyond Langchiao Bay. At one spot, among others, where a spur reaches the sea, the road was cut through the solid rocks and disclosed dark red breccia. Horizontal lines and Tideripples were visible at different places on the sandstone cliffs at a height of about 50 feet. Further on the strip of land, which runs between the sea and the mountain range, gradually widens into a sandy tract, on which a few acres have been cultivated with rice and sugar. The cliffs are overgrown with brushwood; but where torrents break over them, white sandstone rocks (quartzites)

* These figures are taken from the "China Sea Directory."

are uncovered, and a section showing huge boulders of the same material covered by gravel and sand was also laid open to the eye.

The town of Hongkong is beautifully situated, 30 li from Langchia, on an alluvial tract of dark sand covering strata of flagstones, which extend to the sea and form a bar round the shallow harbour. They are deposits from the two mountains, which here meet the Li-liang Sua. The coast line northwards shows shingle of a similar nature; houses and walls are built of these dark-grey sandstones; they are less micaceous than the before mentioned red ones but are mostly traversed by veins of quartz; of the specimens collected one shows crystalization, the other both this and slaty texture. 5 li north of Hongkong another mountain torrent enters the sea, its banks are precipitous and at its mouth a dark cliff rises, which from its shape is called "Saitou," i.e. Lion's head.

2 miles further on, on similar ground as Hongkong, also pierced by a small river and surrounded by a stonebar, lies the village of Chetonka. The same may be said of Namchieh, the next station on the road. Except at these points the coast is bold and steep, the hills in some places descending almost to the waters edge. On one of these projections, where a fort has been built on the rocks, I met with traces of coralline limestone; otherwise this part of the coast consists of white sandstone cliffs like those before Hongkong.

From Namchieh I made an ingress among the mountains. After crossing the alluvial plain, I arrived at a gorge through which a river flows; from its entrance a level terrace extends towards the seashore, and at the other side a narrow valley opens to the left and right, partly cultivated. I followed the river eastward and ascended one of the hills, where I had opportunity to observe the physical aspects of the neighbouring mountains: this district is made up of detached rounded hills and short anticlinal ridges, whilst parallel ranges striking from North to South are the general character of the southern system. The scenery here is also wilder and more picturesque.

The specimens collected near Namchieh belong to the Clayslate group, of various description and different gradation of metamorphosis.

1. Hard and compact, sub-crystalline fine grained slate, splitting into plane layers.
2. Somewhat arenaceous rough feeling shale, not very fissile, rather friable.
3. Shining, foliating schist.

The last named was by position the lowest having been detached from the rocky bank of the river, which washes these schistose strata.

From Nanchieh the road winds around the Chao Shan, 1,340 feet high, and enters the great plain. The ground becomes darker and the beach presents a deep black sand, which continues all along the coast as far as Takow. The mountains here recede and stretch in a North-North-East direction to the foot of the Kueilei Shan (i.e. Punch and Judy Mountain) which is the backbone of the southern central range.

The hills northwest of this I have examined. They are throughout a mass of black shale of slaty, not schistose structure, much like, though inferior to the so-called roofing slates found in European primary districts. What the bamboo is to the Chinese, the slate is in many respects to the Savages, who live on the steep flanks of these rugged and barren mountains. The walls and roofs of their houses and granaries are composed of slate, slate plates are the shutters placed in front of the openings which do service as windows and doors, blocks of slate serve as seats, on slate again they crush the millet. This millet and a kind of potato, called "Wassa" in the Gali language, are the only produce of these regions, the one growing in the valleys, the other on thin layers of dark soil, which cover the lower hills.

About 2 miles North of Bankimsing a mountain stream has broken through the outskirts of the Kueileishan; a terrace of clay of about the same height as that of the Nanchieh shows also here the former level of the river; the rocks at one side of the pass consist of purple coloured shale and nearly horizontal strata dipping from West to East are visible crossing the strike of the hill. Past this gorge valleys open towards the North and South; the latter turns Eastward and reaches to

the foot of the Kueilei mountain, which here rises abruptly to a height of 9,050 feet. The ranges flanking this valley and resting on or issuing from the mainmass, at an elevation of about 4,000 feet, partly slope at an angle of about 25° , forming terraces at some places, and partly fall abruptly. The river bed, at the season I visited it, in February, contained but little water, as all the other streams of a similar nature, which in summer, however, are furious and almost impassable torrents. This river bed, when seen from the heights, looks like a white band wound through the brushwood. The stones which cover it and which extend far out into the plain, till hidden from sight by the overlying clay, are particularly interesting, because they give us a clue to the mineralogical composition of the principal mountain from which they come. Besides Black Slates, I found the following fragments:—

1.—Hornblende-schist, with flakes of mica, traversed by quartz veins, coated with iron and waterworn crystals of felspar;

2.—Felstone-Porphyry, hard and compact veined and covered with white felspar, which shows an uneven and splintery fracture and is highly crystallized.

It remains to add, that throughout these masses of Sandstones and Slates I have found no organic remains except a stem of wood inclosed in a nodule of ironstone which I picked up somewhere near Hongkong. Although this does not prove that there are no fossils embedded, they are certainly rare, as may well be expected, considering the nature and age of these rocks.

The above notes and observations, though they may seem scanty, nevertheless enable us to draw the following deductions:—

1.—The highest central mass of mountains in South Formosa is of primary age, consisting of crystalline schists, broken through by igneous rocks, such as Porphyries.

2.—The mountains flanking the highest central mass to the North-west, West, and South West as far as Namchieh are made up of Silurian Slates and Shales.

3.—The hill ranges from Namchieh to Hêngch'unhsien are

composed of the following alterations of strata, traversed in some places by veins of quartz:—

- a. Arinaceous shale, which is apparently a transition from the clayslate to ———
- b. Darkgrey micaceous flagstone;
- c. Grey sandstone;
- d. White sandstone (quartzite);
- e. Red breccia (conglomerate);
- f. Red Sandstone.

All these rockmasses except the white sandstone (Silurian) which is found lowest on a level with the sea, are probably Devonian deposits, lying on Silurian strata and overspread by the Carboniferous System which contains seams of coal and ferruginous shale and ironstone.

4. The district south of Hengch'un-hsien was originally a Coral Island.

So much for the mountainous part of South Formosa. The plain, however, so important and well known from an economical point of view is not less interesting geologically. It extends from Pangliao northward through the whole western part of the island; a series of hillranges, which approaches the seashore near the city of Taiwanfu, divides it into two parts, the southern of which only falls within the boundary of this paper. This, the most fertile district in the whole island, is an alluvium of posttertiary origin, a rich loam derived partly from the shales of the Central Mountains partly from the Sandstones south and partly from the Limestone hills, which here and there reach above the level of the lowland. These are the great and small Kangshan, the Whale back, Apeshill, Saracen's head, Fêngshan. and, still surrounded by water, but belonging to the same category, Lambay Island near Tangkang.

Apeshill or Taku Shan (beat the drum-hill, so called because of the rocks dangerous to navigation, which lie at its foot and which make the junkmen appeal to the Gods by beating the gong) has been very well described by Dr. Guppy in his paper

“Notes on the Geology of Takow”* and correctly characterised. It remains for me but to determine the period, in which it originated, therefore it is necessary to particularize the various kinds of Limestone and allied rocks found, and the fossils, they contain. We have:

1.—Compact Limestone, a hard smooth fine grained rock, generally of bluish grey colour;

2.—Saccharine or Statuary Marble, fine grained, white, resembling loaf-sugar in texture;

3.—Oolite, composed of grains connected by a calcareous cement;

4.—Marl, friable compound of lime and clay;

5.—Chalk or rather indurated carbonate of lime;

6.—Red clay.

To Dr. Guppy's List of Fossils only one specimen is worth adding, but an important one, namely the coin-shaped, foraminiferal, shell *Nummus laevigata*, which however is not so much developed that I could speak here of Nummulitic Limestone. But it serves us as a guide in fixing the time of the last great upheaval of Apeshill, i.e. the beginning of the Tertiary Period. There are traces of the cretaceous system, but the main composition of Apeshill, the plateau and its fringes are decidedly Oolitic, while I am inclined to think that the summit of Apeshill and the fundamental rocks reach as far back as the Carboniferous epoch. The characteristic features of the Mountain Limestone: subcrystalline, intersected by joints and thus breaking up in large tabular masses—as well as the fragments of older corals (*Lithostrotia* are abundant) which are spread about below and form part of the earthy varieties, point to it. Examination of the caverns and fissures, which Dr. Guppy recommended to any resident at Takow, did not bring forward anything particular, so far as I have been in them. The fissures form a labyrinth of subterranean passages of varying width, as much as 30 feet deep, and the caves reach down to an immeasurable depth; in fact Apeshill is a vast cave; to which access would be easy enough, were not an amount of

* Journal N. C. B. of R. A. S. vol. XVI, 1880.

curiosity required that would surpass wisdom. Some of the smaller caverns, which I entered, presented stalagmites and stalactites, also columns, but none very extraordinary. The floor deposit consists of calc-tuff. Bones of goats and cattle, which fell down and died there are to be met with: of living beings large spiders, lizards and monkeys have their abode here.

Whaleback Hill is the sea bottom tilted up by subterranean force. One half of the broken crust remained standing at angles of 25-30°, while the other half tumbled together. The rocks present the petrified bottom of the ocean with its shells in situ; but it is impossible to determine by the fossils, with which of the three (not only two) traceable upheavals of Apes-hill, Whaleback simultaneously arose.

Fêngshan (Phoenix-mountain, so called from its birdlike shape) is also limestone formation; it lies 6 miles South of Takow, near the Coast and its rocks reach into the sea. From Fêngshan North-east a low line of hills continues which has at one time most probably been a line of Sanddunes as the Takow spit is at the present day.

At the mouth of the Tangkang River, 9 miles S.W. from the town of the same name, lies the small island Hsiao Liu chiu (a name referring to the Chinese idea that Formosa in ancient time formed part of the kingdom of Liuchiu). Lam-bay Island, as foreigners name it, is of similar origin to Apes-hill, but of more recent age, not older than tertiary. The fossil shells embedded in its limestone differ not at all from species at present in existence. The island is surrounded by living coral reefs, which at ebb-tide are visible above the surface and extend far into the sea, where they shimmer through the waves from a depth of 10 to 20 fathoms, so clear is the water here. The beach at the Eastside of this little isle is covered with white coralsand and the greatest variety of Cockles and shells is found, a remarkable contrast to the black shore of the opposite mainland, on which no trace of living beings is met, save crustacea burrowing in the sand. At the Southwest point of the island are some not very extensive caverns. The islanders informed me, that when they, or rather their grand-

fathers, settled there (120 years ago), they found human bones in them and a table of stone. Chinese, it appears, prefer to keep away from caverns: on Apeshill they fear the monkeys and here, the ghosts.

In crossing from Lambay Island to Tangkang which town lies on indurated mudflats, the material of which was carried down from the Slate mountains by the same river, which they now embank, one sails over a depth of more than 300 fathoms. Such an extraordinary depression is most singular in the Formosa channel, which on an average is only about 20 fathoms deep, so much so, that the Commander of a British gunboat, who first discovered it, may be excused for taking this spot for the submerged water of a volcano. The geological condition of the surrounding land speaks against this assumption, and we cannot, with due regard for the local circumstances explain it otherwise than as a chasm, which is gradually filling up.

From what I have said up to the present, it would almost seem as if the popular idea, "Formosa is a volcanic island," was altogether wrong. There is in truth no trace of recent volcanic eruption in the districts above described, but very close by, only 3 miles Northeast of the port of Takow is a tract of land, the peace and quiet of which has never been suspected by Takow Residents as hiding the recent seat of action of the subterranean forces, and it was not until in reading the "Taiwan fu chih," I came across a passage recording the last eruption, that I myself visited those hills. They are the "Chih Shan" known to foreigners as the Pineapple hills, where the most delicious fruit grows, that Formosa produces. The chapter of historical events says: "In the 61st year of Kang-hsi (i.e. 1722) in summer Chihshan opened 8 chang (80 feet) long and 4 chang (40 feet) wide; black earth (mud) came out; on the 2nd day, by night, fire came out, several feet high;" and the Mountain and River chapter notes with reference to Chih Shan, the name of which is also explained as derived from the colour of the ground, that "sometimes fire is rising."

There we have an accurate description of a volcanic outburst from a Chinese record and quite in accordance with the theo-

ries of foreign science. The fire was, of course, only visible by night because it was not fire, but simply the glowing light of the ejected material, and this, described as black earth ('hei tu') was hot mud, which in the usual course would afterwards assume the reddish brown colour of iron dust. This was the case here; for on my exploring visit I found the hills to consist of a light and porous reddish yellow earth, very much like clay, but being in reality tufa, the chemically transformed vulcanic mud, and on the surface at some places thin layers of tuffstone, the loose tufa cemented. The district covers about three square miles and includes a small lake; it is the outcrop of not one only, but frequent small eruptions at different places. One spot, where an outburst of mud had taken place, I have traced on the extreme western hill, 3 miles East of Whaleback, and there are several points which render it probable that this is the one alluded to in the records. Where the vent was, is now a pool of water, and on the south side, where the accumulation is higher than on the northern, a thin crust of scorix is found. Not far, S.E. from the supposed vent, I noticed a vertical cutting of a dyke, which shew the following interesting sequence of layers, from the top downwards.

SOFT GROUND,		
SCORIX,		
YELLOW TUFF,		
GREY TUFF,		
BLUISH BLACK TUFF,		
DARK YELLOW TUFF,		
LIGHT YELLOW TUFF,		
A DARK YELLOW LINE (HARDER).		
WHITISH TUFF,		
DARK YELLOW TUFF,		
SCORIX,		
&c,	&c.,	&c.

I am unable to explain the variation of the colours otherwise than that the different materials deposited contained different proportions of lime and silica. Among the fragments thrown up I have especially to mention a large piece of rock-crystal and one of white sandstone, which indicate the deeper strata.

Hot Springs are also said to exist in this district according to the "Taiwan fu chih;" but I have not found any. A river called Liu 'huang chiang (Sulphur River) rises here and runs into the Lagoon at Takow; but its name may be derived from the Sulphursprings at the foot of Apeshill.

Northeast of Chihshan commence the outrunners of the mountains, which, as above-mentioned, bisect the Formosan plain. My stay in Takow, however, has not been long enough to allow of my exploring them and the climate of the 22nd degree of latitude is not in favour of outdoor-exercise.

From this description of the geological condition we may now deduce the following series of evolutions to have taken place, which together make up the Geological History of South Formosa and to some extent of the whole island.

1.—First in order must be placed the deposition of the crystalline schists, which probably correspond with F. von Richthofen's Sinian System. By folding of these, the central mountain ranges originated.

2.—A period of volcanic activity succeeded, to which the falsitic traps owe their existence.

3.—Then followed abrasion of the primary mountains from which fresh clayey deposits at their base, the slates and shales of the present day were derived; sediments of a sandy nature were washed on, and while the sea was rising more and more during the Silurian and Devonian periods, all those strata were accumulated, which now form the mountainous district of South Formosa. The fissile sandstones and arenaceous shale near Namchieh show where the two substances, sand and clay, joined.

4.—At the end of the Devonian Period the land appears to have risen again. The red conglomerates which occur at the

height of about 200 feet above the present level are the remains of a then gravel or pebble beach.

5.—At that time also vegetation flourished and the surface of the ground was overgrown with plants. The sandy shore was studded with that low kind of Palmtree, Cycadeae, which we now find along the sandy bank of the plain; for an iron-pyrite has preserved us a piece of the trunk showing the same organic structure.

6.—Periodical inundations and gradual submergence of the land followed; new sediments accumulated and covered that primary and subsequent vegetation, which compressed altered and mineralized we now find as seams of coal.

7.—Earth movements or Crust motions seem to coincide with this, the Carboniferous period. Volcanic action had long since ceased on the Formosa as it then existed, but manifested itself at the sides, giving origin to the basaltic Pescadores in the West, the Pinnacle group, Tiau-su Island in the North East, and Harp Island, which in 1853 was still in a violent state of eruption, on the East Coast. The volcanic districts near Tamsui and North-east of Taiwanfoo are also proofs of the volcanic activity, which developed at the foot of the Central Mountain ranges, at first under and afterwards above water. Under these the subterranean forces worked by upheaving the mass, too strong to be disrupted, and while the island thus more and more rose above the waves, which surrounded it at the end of the Carboniferous period, its sides gradually subsided, thus contributing to the receding of the sea and subsequent denudation.

8.—Meanwhile corals had commenced their structures on the sedimentary bottom and built their reefs around the land. Thus in the South, for instance, Remarkable Peak originated, which now as a compact limestone cone points into the air, and a series of reefs extended around it. Simultaneously with a general rising of the island those first reefs as well as the ground, to which corals had attached themselves, rose above the surface of the ocean. The coral growth continued not on the original rocks, but around them, forming a new series of reefs, till after again rising the whole formed a coral island

corresponding in all its characteristics with the coralline islands existing in the Pacific Ocean, at the present day. There, a fringing reef of coral is often found immediately attached to the land, whilst in many other cases the reef surrounds a volcanic island, the intervening space of irregular, but nowhere of great width, forming a lagoon or channel of still water, protected by the reef from wind and waves. The reefs very often form an arc, the convexity of which is towards the prevailing wind, and a straight line of reef not generally rising above the reach of the tide, forms the chord of the arc. Here at the South end of Formosa we have two Mountain ranges, Coral-reefs built up by generations of zoophytes, now raised high above the sea, solidified by age and chemical agency and transformed into compact limestone. They form an arc open towards the South, whence for six months during the year the South West monsoon blows and evidently has blown for ages, and as the reef which formed the cord of this arc, we may identify the plateau between the South and South-west ranges, which, except in the middle is lower than the other hills and was at one time still below the level of the sea, whilst the higher reefs already surpassed it. The hill ranges within the circuit may be looked upon as the sedimentary bottom, raised by previous earth movements, answering to the volcanic rocks to which the corals attached themselves and around which their fringes extended. The navigable passage spoken of as leading through the reef into the inclosed lagoon is found at Langchiao, but it is by no means accidental, that this opening should be there; for as the convexity of the arc is towards the wind prevailing in summer, so this passage has been kept open by the North-east monsoon which during the winter months was driving the waters of the Formosa channel into the lagoon within the reefs. In consequence of a third upheaval, the lower reefs also rose to the surface and the channels of still water which were between the reefs and the land emptied themselves leaving behind layers of mud, clay and sand as proof of their past existence and as a foundation for the fertile valleys that are now under cultivation.

The second great Limestone formation, Apeshill, is of a somewhat different nature. It seems to be a link in a series

of barrier-reefs, which stretched along the whole South-west Coast of Formosa. Like the oldest rocks of the South Cape district it also was built up during the time of subsidence (Carboniferous period), hence its great height of about 1,000 feet, not reckoning the probable depth under the surface, and upheaved at three consecutive times. It stands witness to the different periods, which intervene between the Carboniferous and the Tertiary, bearing traces of the clayey and cretaceous sediments which were deposited during that time in the Formosa Channel.

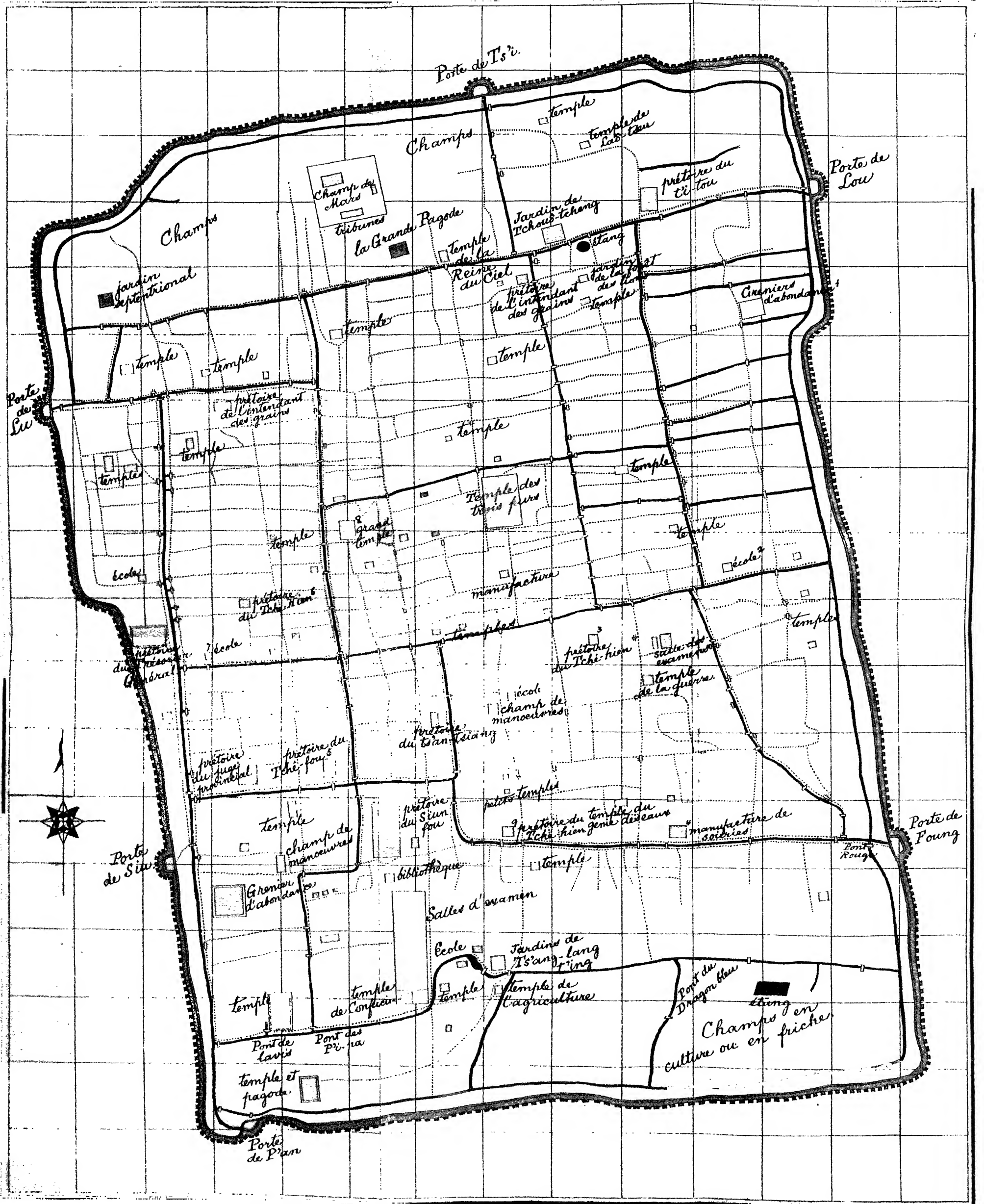
9.—While the denudation of the mountains went on, and afterwards by torrents of rain, which deepened the channels, widened the valleys and broke through the rocks, forming those gorges, through which now rivers rush into the sea, débris were carried down and gradually filled up the shallow sea between the land and the outlying islands; fresh sediments were washed on to these, attached themselves and gradually connecting, formed the outline of the present plain.

10.—At the time of the Dutch, towards the middle of the 17th century, new Formosa was so far formed that only shoals and flat islands, Anping for instance, were still unconnected with the mainland. South of Fêngshan a large shallow Bay existed. The land generally was so marshy that the Dutch laid their roads on artificial dykes. The plain extended more and more into the sea: the city of Kushia, built on the seashore (North-east of Apeshill) 150 years ago, now lies a mile away from the tidal waves; shallow lagoons have taken the place of former expanses of water; on former islands sugar cane is now planted, and the sportsman finds almost every year more of his snipeground turned into ricefields and new marshland consoles him for his loss. The almost visible elevation of this Formosan plain is, of course, not due alone to alluvial accumulation, but the subterranean forces, which already have begun to alter the surface of the plain, by throwing up hills (mud-volcanoes) have their share in this useful work of extending the land, as the slight crust motions, which accompany the frequent earthquakes, tend to raise it. Suppose that the present conditions continue, in from 50 to 100

years, the inner harbour at Takow will no longer exist as such; besides having become too shallow for vessels of even the lightest draught, it may possibly be closed altogether by the masses of rock which tumble down from the sides of the narrow entrance, and although the outer harbour may replace it, it will not offer the same shelter as is found now within the precincts of Apeshill and Saracen's head. The open roadstead of Anping, already 2 miles away from the port, will be pushed out to sea more and more, and Tangkang, situated at the mouth of a powerful and for native craft navigable river, which rather deepens its bed, and already an important mart and centre of the junktrade between this part of the island and the continent of China, is likely to become the most suitable harbour and the principal seat of the Export Trade of South Formosa.







PLAN
DE LA VILLE DE
SOU-TCHEOU
Dressé d'après plusieurs plans chinois
Par CAMILLE IMBAULT-HUART.

N.B.—Comme dans les plans chinois, les rues sont indiquées par des lignes pointillées.

RENVOIS.

1. Du district de Yuan-hü.
2. id.
3. id.
4. Manufacture impériale.
5. Préfet de Sou-tcheou.
6. Du district de Vou.
7. id.
8. Temple du Génie tutélaire de la cité.

ARTICLE IV.
FRAGMENTS
D'UN VOYAGE DANS L'INTERIEUR
DE LA CHINE.

PAR
C. IMBAULT—HUART,
Interprète du Gouvernement Français.

I. EXCURSION A LA VILLE DE SOU-TCHÉOU, CAPITALE
DE LA PROVINCE DU KIANG-SOU.

En vue de Sou-tchéou—Histoire ancienne de cette ville—Etendue de la ville actuelle—Résidence du Gouvernement provincial—Administration de Sou-tchéou—Décadence de cette ville—Les jardins de plaisir : leur temple du Nord—Une école chinoise : de l'enseignement en Chine—Promenades dans les rues—L'agora de Sou-tchéou—Les conteurs chinois : Yen-tche ou Une cause célèbre chinoise, nouvelle—Peintures chinoises—Le camp—Un incendie—Superstitions chinoises : le *foung-chouéi*, récit d'une agitation superstitieuse.

Partis le matin, à l'aube, de la Concession Française de Changhaï, nous arrivions le soir même à 唯亭 *Oueï-ting* (*Y-ding*),¹ bourg situé à mi-chemin entre 昆山 *Koun-chan* (*Quin-san*) et 蘇州 *Sou-tchéou* (*Sou-tseu*), après avoir remonté tout le cours du 吳淞江 *Vou-soung Kiang*.² Là, nous avons ancré notre bateau non loin d'une canonnière chinoise destinée à protéger la navigation de la rivière, et sans nous mettre en peine des soi-disant marins qui en formaient l'équipage, ni du canon de bois, à l'air piteux et renfrogné, qui en ornait la proue. La présence de ce navire de guerre suffisait

1. Nous donnons la prononciation locale entre parenthèses.

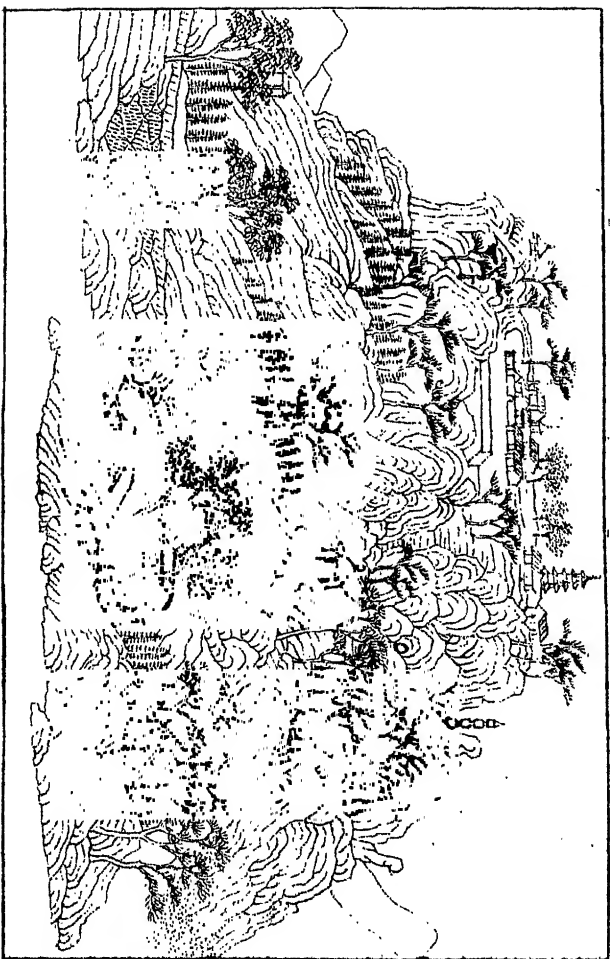
2. Le *Vou-soung Kiang* se jette à Changhaï dans le Houang-pou et est décoré par les étrangers du nom de *Crique de Sou-tchéou* (*Sou-chow creek*) parcequ'il y conduit.

pour tranquilliser notre batelier qui, comme tout bon *lôda*, se refusait énergiquement à naviguer la nuit, de peur d'être détroussé par des pirates d'eau douce ou des revenans imaginaires sortis de son cerveau fécond. Après une nuit relativement paisible, troublée seulement par le gong que nos turbulens voisins frappaient de temps à autre pour effrayer les voleurs, nous repartions aux premières blancheurs de l'aube et continuions notre route vers Sou-tchéou.

Cette grande ville s'annonce par le nombre toujours croissant des jonques et barques qui sillonnent le canal; au fur et à mesure que nous avançons nous apercevions de plus en plus distinctement dans le lointain, à travers la brée du matin, un amas étendu de maisons éclairées par le soleil levant et dominé par une haute pagode, spécimen classique de l'architecture chinoise, puis de grises murailles dont les créneaux se découpaient sur l'azur du ciel: c'était Sou-tchéou. Au dessus, fermant l'horizon et à peine visibles derrière un voile de brouillard, se dessinait une chaîne de hautes collines. Ces hauteurs bordent le 太湖 *T'ai-hou* ou *Grand lac* dont la plaine liquide se développe à l'ouest de Sou-tchéou, et, se continuant dans le lac même, y forment quelques grandes îles et un grand nombre d'îlots.

Après deux heures environ de navigation, nous atteignons les faubourgs: à l'entrée se voient les ruines d'un pont détruit par les rebelles t'ai-p'ing; partout on retrouve encore aujourd'hui les traces du passage de ces vandales chinois. On dirait que le gouvernement laisse subsister à dessein ces vestiges pour servir d'enseignement aux générations futures. Le long des rives, à droite et à gauche, de nombreux trains d'arbres équarris sont rangés symétriquement tout contre les immenses chantiers où la scie doit les diviser en planches de toutes dimensions.

Les faubourgs traversés nous entrons dans la ville par la porte de Lou (婁門 *Lou-meun*), appelée aussi 東門 *toung-meun*, porte de l'est: celle-ci se compose de trois forts bastions dont le premier est coiffé d'un pavillon élevé qui sert de corps-



LA MONTAGNE DE LA TERRASSE DIVINE.

D'après un dessin chinois.

de-garde, et de trois 水路 *Chouei-lou* ou portes d'eau. De là, nous suivîmes les méandres du canal enclavé entre deux rangées de maisons, et, heurtant ici et là des barques en charge et en décharge, à quai devant le yâmen ou prétoire du *t'i-tou* ou général commandant la place, nous fîmes nous amarrer au pied même des murs nouvellement crépis de l'Eglise catholique.

Sou-tchéou située par 31° 23' 25" latitude nord et 4° 0' 25" longitude est de Péking, n'est pas une ville d'hier : sa fondation remonte loin. Voici ce que les Annales rapportent sur son origine :

A l'époque de l'ancienne dynastie des 周 *Tchéou*, la principauté de 吳 *Vou*, qui occupait à peu près le même pays désigné aujourd'hui sous le nom de province du Kiang-sou, était sous la domination d'un prince appelé 闔閭王 *'Hô-lu ouang*, le roi *'Hô-lu*. Ce souverain régna de l'an 514 à l'an 416 avant notre ère. En 484, *'Hô-lu*, dont la capitale était alors à 梅里 *Mei-li*, non loin de l'actuelle 常州府 *Tch'ang-tchéou-fou*, voulut transporter sa résidence dans un endroit plus favorable et plus au centre de son Etat. Sur les conseils de son célèbre ministre 伍子胥 *Vou Tseu-siu*,¹ il fit choix de l'emplacement où s'élève à présent Sou-tchéou et y fit bâtir une ville. Cette cité eut huit portes, autant de portes d'eau et quarante sept *li* de tour.² *Hô-lu* y fit élever une tour immense du sommet de laquelle on apercevait toute la principauté de *Vou* : c'est du nom de cette tour 姑蘇臺 *Kou-sou-t'ai*, Terrasse de Kou-sou,³ qu'est dérivé l'ancien nom de

1. Voir sur ce ministre, W. F. Mayers, *Chinese reader's Manual*.

2. Un 里 *li* ou lieue chinoise se compose de 360 步 *pou* ou pas. Le *pou*=1 m. 75 ; le *li* vaut donc 630 mètres. Par conséquent il faut 8 *li* pour faire une de nos lieues françaises.

3. Cette tour fut construite en neuf ans (經營九年始成) : elle avait 300 *tchang* de haut ; du sommet on pouvait voir à plus de 300 *li*. Pour y monter on avait fait un chemin sinueux (作九曲路以登之). Voir le 蘇州府志 *Sou-tchéou-fou tche*, Description du Département de Sou-tchéou ; c'est dans cet ouvrage que nous avons puisé les renseignements historiques que nous donnons ici et beaucoup d'autres qui sont éparés dans cet article. (A. Wylie, *Notes on Chinese Literature*, p. 37.)

Sou-tchéou, *Kou-sou*, qui est resté littéraire et poétique et que l'on emploie constamment encore de nos jours. En 916 de notre ère la ville fut entourée de murs en briques de deux *tchang* quatre *tch'e*¹ de haut et deux *tchang* et demi d'épaisseur. Plus tard, deux des portes furent condamnées, mais, pour en perpétuer le souvenir, on en grava les noms sur le mur qui les remplaça. Les murs furent réparés en 1662.

La Sou-tchéou de nos jours a une étendue moins considérable : elle n'a que quarante-cinq li de circonférence; les murs ont 5605 *tchang* de longueur : ils ont deux *tchang* huit *tch'e* de haut et un *tchang* huit *tch'e* d'épaisseur. Sou-tchéou n'a plus que six portes : le 齊門 *ts'i-meun*, Porte de Ts'i, ou Porte du nord (北門 *pei-meun*) ; le 閩門 *Lu-meun*, Porte de Lu, (en souvenir du roi Hô-lu) ou Porte de l'ouest (西門 *si-meun*) ; le 胥門 *Siu-meun* Porte de Siu (i. e. de Vou Tseu-siu ou petite porte de l'ouest (小西門 *siaó si-meun*) ; le 盤門 *P'an-meun*, Porte de P'an, ou Porte du sud (南門 *nan-meun*) ; le 蔣門 *Foung-meun*, Porte de Foung, ou petite porte de l'est (小東門 *siaó toung-meun*) ; enfin le 婁門 *Lou-meun*, Porte de Lou, ou porte de l'est (東門 *toung-meun*). Sauf la petite porte de l'ouest, toutes ont des *choueï-lou*, passages pour les eaux ou portes d'eau. Chacune d'entre elles est surmontée d'un grand kiosque ou pavillon où sont casernés quelques soldats sous le commandement d'un mandarin militaire. Les murailles ont 57 bastions, 3051 créneaux et 157 tours.

Sou-tchéou, capitale ou chef-lieu de la province du Kiang-sou, est le siège du gouvernement provincial. Ce gouvernement se compose

1.^o d'un 巡撫 *siun-fou* (vulgairement 撫台 *fou-tai*) ou gouverneur de province qui est *ex officio* l'un des vice-présidents du Ministère de la guerre de façon à commander aux troupes de la province. C'est à ce titre que le célèbre Li Houng-tchang, aujourd'hui vice-roi du Tche-li, alors gou-

1. Le 尺 *tch'e* ou pied = 307 millimètres ; le 丈 *tchang* vaut dix pieds (*tch'e*) et a pour équivalent 3 m. 05.

verneur du Kiang-sou, dirigea, de 1862 à 1865, les opérations militaires contre les rebelles;

2.^o d'un 布政使 *pou-tcheng-che* (ou 藩台 *Fan-tai*), trésorier général, ayant sous ses ordres un 理問 *li-ouen* ou trésorier adjoint;

3.^o d'un 按察使 *an-tch'a-che* (ou 臬台 *Nié-tai*) juge provincial, secondé par divers mandarins appelés 經歷 *king-li* et 司獄 *sseu-yu*. De ce fonctionnaire dépendent également les mandarins chargés de surveiller le tribut en grains envoyé annuellement à Péking et de veiller à l'entretien des cours d'eaux (rivières et canaux) de la province.

Les troupes de la province sont commandées, sous la haute direction du gouverneur, par un 叅將 *ts'an-tsiang* ou lieutenant colonel et un 總兵 *tsoung-ping* ou général de brigade.

Ajoutons à cette liste un inspecteur des Douanes, et un surveillant des manufactures impériales (織造 *tche-tsaô*): ce dernier a sous ses ordres un 司庫 *sseu-k'ou* ou trésorier, un 筆帖式 *pi-tie-che* ou secrétaire de septième rang et des 庫使 *k'ou-che*, gardiens du Trésor.

Le Département de Sou-tchéou est administré par un 知府 *tche-fou*, préfet; un 通判 *t'oung-pan*, sous-préfet (qui s'occupe des grains); un 教授 *kiaô-chéou*, inspecteur d'Université; un 訓導 *hiun-taô*, recteur; un 知事 *tche-che*, archiviste de l'intendant des gabelles et un 照磨 *tchaô-mô* ou mandarin chargé des sceaux. C'est ce dernier qui vend les boutons ou globules, en reçoit le prix d'achat et scelle les certificats.

La ville de Sou-tchéou elle-même est divisée administrativement en trois 縣 *hien* ou districts: ceux de 吳 *Vou*, de 長州 *Tch'ang-tchéou* et de 元和 *Yuan-hô*. A la tête de chacun d'eux est un 知縣 *tche-hien*, magistrat de district, ayant sous ses ordres un 縣丞 *hien-tch'eng*, adjoint; un 教諭 *kiaô-yu*, directeur des études; un 管糧 *kouan-léang*, fermier des grains, un 巡檢 *siun-kien*, surveillant et un 典史 *tien-che*, commissaire de police.

La juridiction des magistrats de district ne s'étend pas seulement sur leur propre district, mais encore sur la partie

des faubourgs qui touche à leur circonscription.

Les appointemens des fonctionnaires diffèrent d'ordinaire selon les postes et les provinces: voici ceux des principaux mandarins de Sou-tchéou, d'après le 大清摺紳全書 *Ta-ts'ing tsin-chen tsuan-chou*, Annuaire de l'Empire des Ts'ing :

Gouverneur	13000	taels.
Trésorier Général	10000	„
Juge provincial.....	8000	„
Préfet	3000	„
Magistrat de Vou-hien	2700	„
„ de Tch'ang-tchéou	800	„
„ de Yuan-hô	1080	„

Outre cela, il y a encore l'imprévu, les exactions, et tout ce que l'on désigne en français sous le nom de *gratte*, en anglais sous celui de *squeeze*.

Au point de vue administratif chinois, les postes sont classés en :

- 最要 *tsouei-yaô*, très important;
- 要缺 *yaô-kiué*, poste important;
- 中缺 *tchoung-kiué*, d'une importance moyenne;
- 簡缺 *kien-kiué*, importance ordinaire;

et on les considère suivant que leur circonscription est

- 衝 *tch'oung* fréquentée;
- 繁 *fan*, pleine d'affaires;
- 疲 *p'i*, fatigante;
- 難 *nan*, difficile (à gouverner).

Le poste de Sou-tchéou est considéré comme très important (最要 *tsouei-yaô*) et il réunit les quatre classes ci-dessus.

Sou-tchéou était jadis une ville de plaisirs, de dissipation et de dissolution et, par suite, le rendez-vous de la jeunesse dorée, non pas seulement de la province, mais de tout l'empire. Aujourd'hui elle est bien déchue de son ancienne splendeur et le vieux proverbe tant de fois cité "En haut est le temple du ciel (le paradis); ici bas sont Hang-tchéou et Sou-tchéou" ¹ a

1. 上有天堂下有蘇杭 *Chang yéou t'ien-t'ang, hia yéou Sou 'Hang*,

cessé d'être vrai. Sou-tchéou n'est plus le paradis terrestre des temps passés et la peinture qu'en faisaient au dernier siècle nos missionnaires (lesquels la comparaient à Venise) diffère notablement de ce que l'on voit à présent. La dernière rébellion des *Hommes à grands charoux*, d'une part, qui en a détruit une partie (*rus in urbe*) et brûlé ses faubourgs, et d'autre part, la proximité de Changhaï, ce Paris de l'Extrême Orient, ont porté un coup mortel à la splendeur de Sou-tchéou. Maintenant, c'est à Changhaï que les jeunes gens de qualité vont dévorer leur fortune, que les mandarins retraités vont jouir des écus amassés durant leur administration : la présence et la conduite des européens les excite et les stimule. Nombre d'entre eux imitent les "*diabes étrangers*" et, tout habillés de soie et de satin, le nez orné d'une large paire de lunettes à monture en écaille ou en or, conduisent à grandes guides leur *dog-cart* ou leur *hansomette* sur la route de Bubblingwell, à l'instar des chefs ou employés des maisons de commerce anglaises et américaines.

A l'heure qu'il est, Sou-tchéou est désert, triste et morne : ses canaux, jadis encombrés, ne sont plus parcourus que par un petit nombre de jonques de passage. Les fameux 花船 *Houâ-tch'ouan* ou bateaux de fleurs "qui, au dire du P. Martini, ne sont destinés que pour le seul plaisir et divertissement, tous enrichis d'or et peints des couleurs les plus vives, plus semblables à des maisons magnifiques qu'à des vaisseaux" sont loin d'être aussi nombreux qu'au temps jadis. A peine en voit-on encore quelques uns, à sculptures finement dorées, à lanternes multicolores qui semblent errer çà et là comme des âmes en peine, mais les belles personnes fleuries (花娘 *houâ-niang*) qui les habitent ne voient plus, au son de leurs instruments ou aux modulations de leurs chants, accourir une foule de jeunes gens aussi nombreuse et aussi distinguée qu'autrefois.

Les femmes de Sou-tchéou, dont la beauté est proverbiale dans toute la Chine, sont encore les plus belles chinoises de l'empire. Il nous a été donné d'en voir qui, toutes fardées qu'elles fussent, pourraient plaire à des européens. Ces

hétaïres ont quelque chose en soi de gracieux et d'original qui ajoute un certain charme à leur personne. Elles savent toujours s'habiller avec goût : elles portent de jolies robes de soie ou de satin à couleurs voyantes, recouvertes d'un caraco non moins riche ; leur chevelure, ornée de fleurs variées, s'élève dans les airs, selon l'expression du poëte chinois, "*semblable à un amas de nuages*"; leurs sourcils sont légèrement noircis et allongés en forme d'arc ; leurs yeux sont "*plus purs que l'eau des rivières en automne*" et leur voix est douce "*comme la brise légère du printemps*." Une mince couche de fard et de carmin recouvre leurs joues et leurs lèvres ; de longues boucles d'oreilles d'or ou d'argent font fléchir leurs oreilles, et des bracelets ciselés ornent leurs fins poignets. Leur démarche même, rendue balancée à cause de leurs petits pieds (déformité cachée sous d'élégants souliers brodés), ne laisse pas d'être fort gracieuse : à les voir marcher on dirait un frêle bambou secoué par la brise. Tel est en peu de mots le crayon des beautés de Sou-tchéou.

Mais le règne de ces hétaires ne sera peut-être plus de longue durée : du moins leur pouvoir sur les chinois raffinés semble s'affaiblir. Ces derniers ne sont pas insensibles aux charmes de quelques dames européennes ou américaines, de mœurs faciles et de commerce agréable, qu'ils ont pu admirer à Changhaï, et l'engouement pour les beautés étrangères tend à se propager parmi les chinois de qualité. Encore que leur type diffère notablement de celui des chinoises, il semble qu'il ait un certain attrait pour les habitants du Céleste Empire. On a raconté qu'un riche mandarin qui aida le célèbre commissaire impérial Ki-Yng à conclure avec M. de Lagrenée le traité franco-chinois de 1844, Pan Tseu-tchen, avait voulu se passer la fantaisie d'avoir une femme européenne, mais que le prix qu'on lui demandait pour une jeune brésilienne étant trop élevé pour sa bourse, il en avait été réduit à faire confectionner et revêtir de vêtements européens un mannequin de carton ayant les traits d'une européenne.¹

1. *Voyage en Chine*, par M. C. Lavollée, Paris, 1853, p. 370.

Plus récemment, un mandarin de Hongkong, faisant visite à un jeune négociant anglais de cette ville, trouva ce dernier en compagnie de sa jeune femme. Le mandarin tomba en admiration devant elle et en suivit avec plaisir tous les mouvements : puis, comme elle sortait, il dit au mari :

—Combien donnâtes-vous pour votre femme?

—Oh! répliqua le mari souriant à l'erreur singulière du visiteur, deux mille dollars!

Il pensait que notre mandarin se récrierait.—Eh bien! répartit celui-ci d'un air grave tout en feuilletant son portefeuille, donnez-la moi et je vous donnerai cinq mille dollars.

Etonnement du mari qui refuse naturellement : le mandarin va jusqu'à sept mille dollars. Le négociant se décide alors à lui dire que les européens n'avaient pas coutume de vendre ainsi leurs femmes : le mandarin se retira tout déconfit.

Les beautés de Sou-tchéou n'étaient pas toutes confinées dans les bateaux de fleurs : elles avaient surtout, et c'est là où l'on peut principalement les voir aujourd'hui, des maisons particulières ornées de tout le luxe chinois, d'où elles se répandaient dans les célèbres jardins de plaisir.

Au temps de la splendeur de Sou-tchéou, ces fameux jardins, actuellement encore les plus beaux ornements de cette cité, étaient le rendez-vous de la jeunesse dorée de la province. Au bord des étangs factices ou dans les kiosques élégamment perchés sur des amas de rocs fantastiques, on dressait des tables servies avec luxe, et une foule de jeunes gens, les gommeux de l'endroit et de l'époque, tout vêtus de soie et de satin, venait s'y divertir, discourir, boire en compagnie le vin et le thé que leur offraient des jeunes filles d'une séduisante beauté, et admirer les saules pleureurs "dont le feuillage, baignant dans l'onde, ressemblait, lorsqu'il était secoué par un coup de vent, à la longue chevelure qu'une naïade, au sortir des ondes, agiterait autour d'elle en faisant jaillir une nuée de perles." D'autres, se tenant par la main, se promenaient dans les allées tortueuses, dévisaient ensemble ou badinaient d'une manière aimable avec les jeunes filles ; d'autres encore, assis à

l'ombre des bosquets, faisaient entendre des chants et jouaient de la flûte, ou bien, animés par la verve poétique, se livraient des joutes de poésies sur les mêmes rimes et traçaient avec grâce et légèreté de beaux caractères qui rappelaient, comme parlent les chinois, "*le vol du dragon et l'agilité du serpent.*" Le son des instruments alternait avec les brillantes modulations des oiseaux cachés dans le feuillage.

Hélas! les temps sont bien changés: où sont les neiges d'antan? Il vint un jour où les autorités de la ville, prises subitement d'une rage d'austérité et de vertu, défendirent aux "*irrégulières*" de venir planter leurs tentes dans les jardins. Ceux-ci perdirent tout attrait et ne furent plus fréquentés par les étudiants qui, au lieu de s'enfoncer dans la lecture et l'étude des monuments littéraires chinois les plus inintelligibles, accouraient s'y livrer à de joyeux ébats. Puis arriva la redoutable rébellion aux mains de vandales qui brûla les faubourgs, détruisa les palais, renversa les jardins, massacra ou enleva la population, et, derrière elle, l'armée impériale imitant dans la victoire la conduite sanglante des vaincus. A présent, les jardins renommés, réparés tant bien que mal, existent encore; mais la vogue a disparu: ils sont délaissés, ils sont morts. Le règne des hétaires est fini, et quelques curieux viennent seulement visiter de temps à autre ces lieux de délices passées.

Encore que bien différens des nôtres, ces jardins ont un cachet d'originalité, un charme singulier et *sui generis*. Du reste, le chinois est né paysagiste et sait, même dans un espace restreint, imiter la nature. Ne vous attendez pas à y trouver, comme dans les nôtres, de longues allées bordées et ombragées de grands et beaux arbres, bien ratissées et semées de sable fin, ni des pelouses verdoyantes encadrées d'une corbeille de fleurs multicolores, ni des bassins où des cygnes se baignent sous la rosée perlée d'un jet d'eau, ni encore des statues plus ou moins mythologiques, plus ou moins vêtues, qui semblent narguer les promeneurs: non, rien de tout cela; rien qui rappelle les Tuileries, les Champs Elysées, le Bois de Boulogne ou les Jardins de

Versailles. Allez dans les plus célèbres jardins de Sou-tchéou, le 拙政園 *Tchouô-tcheng yuan*, le 滄浪亭 *Ts'ang-lang-t'ing*, le 獅子林 *Che-tseu-lin*, vous y verrez de petits étangs garnis de nénuphars, au centre desquels s'élèvent, sur des pyramides de rochers factices, d'élégants kiosques à toits recourbés dont les colonnes peintes et les poutres sculptées sont ornées de dragons aux couleurs éclatantes.—Dans ces kiosques se trouvent des tables de marbre poli et des chaises en bois de fer: c'est là que les lettrés aiment à prendre le thé en fumant, en devisant, ou en composant des vers inspirés par la vue de l'eau, des poissons ou des saules agités par le vent. Ces kiosques sont reliés les uns aux autres par de petits chemins étroits et rocailleux, qui promènent leurs méandres à travers l'étang: quelques uns sont en mosaïque représentant des animaux fantastiques. Vous verrez tout autour du jardin des galeries couvertes bordées de saules, puis, çà et là, des pavillons avec ou sans étage dont les salles sont ornées d'inscriptions, de vieilles peintures ou d'objets d'art européens, des petits ponts de bois ou de rochers jetés hardiment d'un kiosque à l'autre, des grottes à rochers fantastiques (qui sont censés représenter des dragons, des phénix, des éléphants et autres animaux extraordinaires) quelque fois des arbres microscopiques à qui la main du jardinier a donné une forme étrange.

Les jardins chinois sont aussi enfantins que le peuple qui les a imaginés: le coup d'œil en est fort gracieux et l'on est tout étonné de l'habileté avec laquelle le Le Nôtre chinois est parvenu à amonceler tant de choses dans un si petit espace;—on se figure le jardin beaucoup plus grand qu'il n'est en réalité: grâce aux chemins sinueux et aux galeries serpentine dont on est obligé de suivre tous les détours, c'est un trompe-l'œil perpétuel.

Le premier jardin que nous visitons est le 拙政園 *Tchouô-tcheng-yuan*, le jardin de la lente administration: il est situé à peu de distance de l'endroit où nous avons jété l'ancre et donne sur la rue côtoyée par le canal qui traverse la ville de l'est à l'ouest. C'est l'un des plus grands et des mieux entre-

tenus: à l'entrée est un bureau où chaque visiteur donne une douzaine de sapèques. On exige cette modique somme, d'abord pour subvenir à l'entretien du jardin, puis, disent les chinois, pour empêcher d'entrer toute autre personne que des lettrés et des gens distingués.

Il s'y trouve plusieurs kiosques à tables de marbre et quelques pavillons à parois tapissés de nombreuses curiosités: plaques de marbre de 大理府 *Tâ-li-fou*, (ville du *Yün-nan* renommée pour cette production), dont les veines naturelles représentent des paysages variés; grandes glaces européennes achetées à Changhai et portant encore l'étiquette du marchand étranger qui les a fournies; pendules également étrangères qui, mal remontées, battent la campagne; laques du Japon, etc.

Au centre d'un petit lac s'élève sur des rochers un kiosque élégant: quatre ponts de rocailles y aboutissent. On lit sur le fronton l'inscription suivante:

荷風四面

Le parfum du lotus s'exhale de tous côtés.

Un grand pavillon, également au milieu d'un étang, porte le nom de "*Pavillon d'où l'on voit les montagnes*;"¹ au premier étage sont les tablettes de plusieurs anciens hauts dignitaires de la province. Un bâtiment spécial, le 筆花堂 *Pi-houâ-t'ang*, Salle des pinceaux et des fleurs, est destiné aux inscriptions: les murs en sont tapissés. Dans la pièce du centre on lit l'inscription suivante due à un préfet de Sou-tchéou de la dynastie actuelle;

求通民情

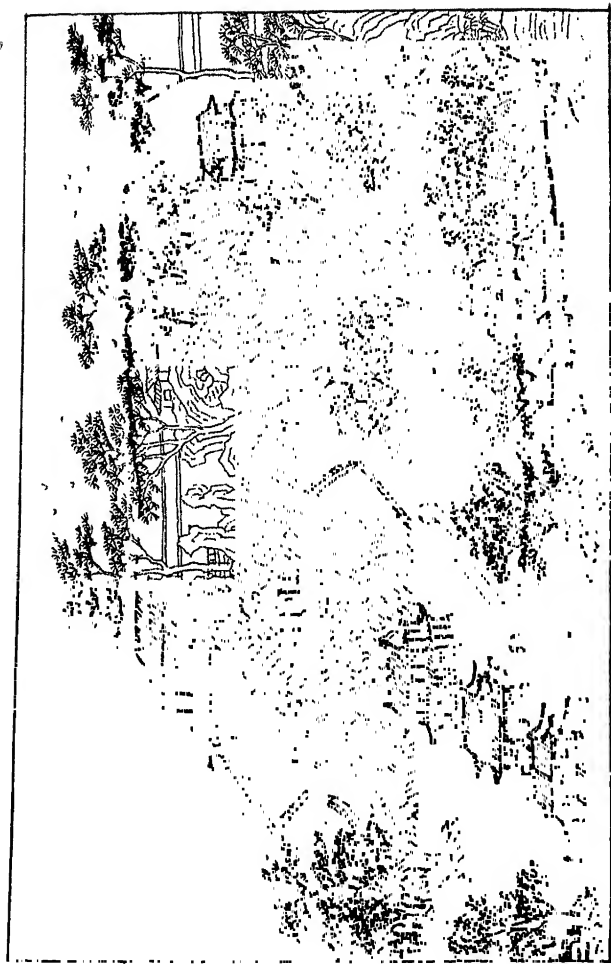
願聞已過

Je désire pénétrer les sentiments du peuple;

Je veux entendre parler de mes propres fautes.

Dans une autre salle sont appendus au mur deux 對子 *touei-tseu* ou pancartes dont les caractères se répondent mutuellement l'un à l'autre; en voici la traduction:

1. 見山樓 *Kien chan lou*.



LE JARDIN DE LA FORÊT DES LIONS A SOU-TCHEOU.

D'après un dessin chinois.

承家節操尙不泯
爲政風流今在茲

Il existe encore de bons principes dans les familles;

Ceux qui exercent des charges doivent les prendre pour guide.

Une galerie couverte fait tout le tour du jardin; c'est le
“*chemin à l'ombre des saules*” (柳陰路曲).

Dans un des angles est une petite grotte composée de rochers fantastiques: quelques orchidées poussent entre les fissures. Partout des arbres, des arbustes, des fleurs, des plantes de toute nature.

Par une petite porte ronde¹ percée dans le mur à l'angle sud-est, on passe dans un petit enclos annexe. C'est le 枇杷園 *pi-pa-yuan*, jardin des Pi-pa. Le pi-pa, en dialecte du pays bi-bô, est la nêfle du Japon, *Eriobotrya japonica*. Il y a dans cet enclos un certain nombre de ces arbres chargés d'excellens fruits: les chinois prétendent que l'on peut en manger autant que l'on veut sans inconvénient à la seule condition d'en avaler la peau.

Sur le mur, un facétieux lettré, sans doute après l'absorption de quelques tasses de vin “à l'ombre des bambous”, a tracé les quatre lignes suivantes qui renferment un calembourg. Celui-ci roule sur ce que le nom de la *guitare* et celui de l'*Eriobotrya japonica* se prononcent à peu près de même *p'i-pa* encore qu'ils s'écrivent différemment.

枇杷不是這琵琶 若是琵琶能結菓
只爲當年識字差 滿城簫鼓盡開花

“Le P'i-pa (*Eriobotrya japonica*) n'est pas la même chose que le p'i-pa (*guitare*): ce n'est qu'un lapsus commis jadis par quelqu'un qui a confondu les caractères. Si le *p'i-pa* (*guitare*) pouvait avoir des fruits, les flageolets et les tambours se couvriraient de fleurs dans toute la ville.”

En face du *Tchouô-tcheng yuan*, mais de l'autre côté du canal, est le 獅子林 *che-tseu-lin*, Forêt du Lion, jardin qui

1. Notons en passant que les chinois appellent ce genre de portes
月亮門 *yué-léang meun*, porte en forme de lune.

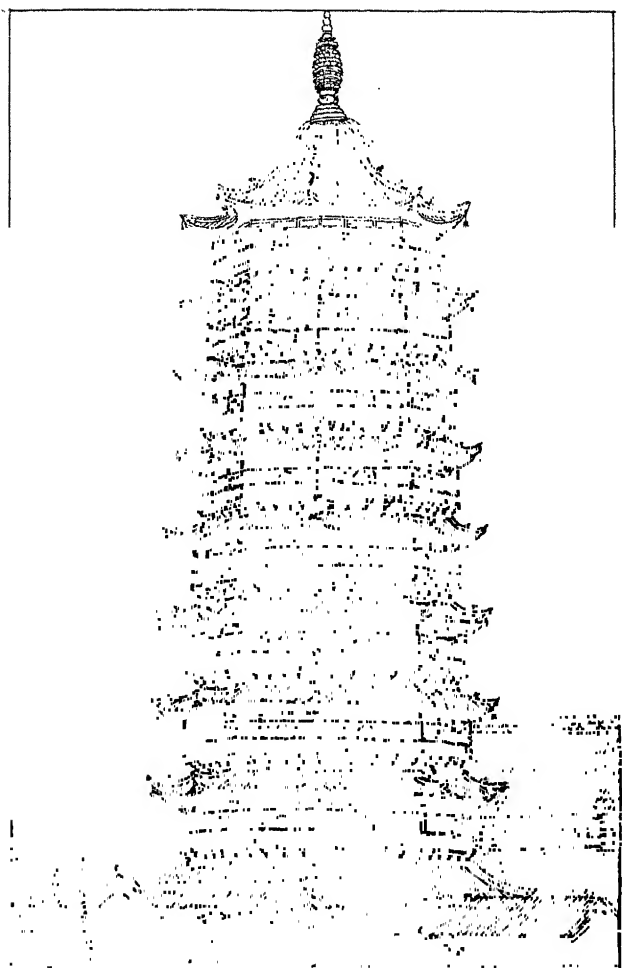
mérite d'être visité. Sous la dynastie mongole il y avait sur son emplacement un petit temple où un bonze célèbre de la province enseignait la *Loi* (法 *Fa*-dharma) aux fidèles. L'Empereur K'ang-hi, dans ses excursions dans le sud de la Chine, le visita plusieurs fois. Sous le règne de K'ien-loung, il fut acheté par un fonctionnaire qui en fit un jardin de plaisir avec kiosques, lacs, pierres fantastiques. Il s'y trouvait cinq vieux pins, d'où le nom vulgaire donné à ce jardin : le jardin des cinq pins (五松園 *ou-soung-yuan*).

En suivant la rue parallèle au canal nous arrivons au 天后宮 *T'ien-héou-koung*, Palais de la Reine du Ciel. La Reine du Ciel, ou, comme l'appellent encore les Chinois, la Mère céleste aux bons présages,¹ est la divinité bouddhique *Môli-tché tien-pou-sâ*,² c'est à dire le Bodhisatva Maritchi déva. Dans la mythologie indienne, c'est la personnification de la lumière. La statue de la déesse est placée sous verre : c'est une grande femme ayant huit bras, dont deux tiennent en l'air les emblèmes du soleil et de la lune. De chaque côté sont des statues à l'air effroyable, peintes de vives couleurs, qui semblent servir de garde d'honneur à la déesse. Devant l'autel que la statue surmonte, trois brûle-parfums en bronze ancien. Tout auprès, comme les marchands de cierges dans nos églises, se tient un marchand de chandelles parfumées, de petits bâtons en écorce d'érable broyée et de bateaux de papier argenté qu'on a coutume de brûler en l'honneur de la divinité.

A un quart d'heure de là, nous débouchons sur la place du 北寺塔 *Pei-sseu-t'a*, Pagode du temple septentrional. Cette pagode, l'une des plus belles qui existent en Chine, a neuf étages; chose curieuse! elle est encore presque intacte, elle semble avoir été respectée par les rebelles et les impériaux qui d'ordinaire faisaient bon marché de semblables monumens. Par contre, le grand temple et la bonzerie ont fort souffert du

1. 吉祥天母 *Ki-siang tien-mou*.

2. 摩利支天菩薩



LA GRANDE PAGODE DE SOU-TCHEOU.

D'après un dessin chinois.



siège de 1863 et sont restés tels quels depuis cette époque. Moyennant quelques sapèques, un vieux bonze, cassé par l'âge et les austerités, nous ouvre la porte de la pagode: nous entrons avec quelques provinciaux venus également pour visiter Sou-tchéou et désireux de contempler la ville du haut du monument élevé, comme à Paris nos provinciaux vont admirer la Babylone moderne du sommet des tours Notre-Dame ou de la Colonne Vendôme.

Au-dessus de la porte de l'escalier on lit 湧現寶光 *Young-chien-paô-kouang*, Auréole étincelante qui brille d'un vif éclat. A chaque étage, des niches pratiquées dans le mur intérieur renferment des figures assises du Bouddha. L'escalier a 218 marches.

Du sommet de la pagode on jouit d'une vue splendide sur Sou-tchéou et les environs. A nos pieds s'étend une vaste mer brune de tuiles vernissées, de toitures herissées de toits recourbés et de chimères fantastiques, d'où émergent les mats de pavillon des *Yamen* avec leurs longues banderolles flottant au gré des vents, et quelques petites pagodes tout honteuses à côté de la nôtre: çà et là, des îlots de verdure entrecoupant la monotonie du paysage, et des espaces vides où pousse l'herbe inculte, cachée sous des amas de briques ou des monceaux de tuiles brisées. C'est la ville immense avec ses jardins, ses pelouses et ses ruines. Près des remparts, surtout au sud, sont encore de vastes emplacements couverts de débris de maisons et de palais, souvenirs vivans du siège.

Au temps de sa splendeur, Sou-tchéou comptait une population de plusieurs millions d'habitants: à peine aujourd'hui renferme-t-elle dans ses murs deux cent à deux cent cinquante mille âmes. C'est du moins ce que l'on peut préjuger à la vue de la ville.

Le temps toujours clair nous permet de distinguer tous les détails du panorama que nous avons sous les yeux: à travers une délicate fumée bleuâtre qui s'échappe des cheminées en bouillonnant et qui se fond lentement avec le brouillard du

matin non encore dissipé par le soleil, nous apercevons la campagne *Sou-tchéouienne*, si l'on peut dire ainsi, et, à l'ouest, parfaitement dessinées, les hautes collines des bords du T'ai-hou. Une légère brise vient secouer les petites clochettes suspendues aux angles du toit de la pagode et les fait tinter doucement et à intervalles réguliers.

Nous redescendons : on nous conduit près de là à une école d'enfants ; c'est un spectacle curieux à voir mais assez étourdissant. Ne vous figurez pas une classe muette, penchée sur des classiques et attentive aux explications d'un professeur : rien de tel. Au contraire, imaginez-vous une école turbulente, assourdissante, où chaque élève récite sa leçon à haute et intelligible voix, chacun de son côté, ce qui forme le concert le concert le plus discordant que l'on puisse entendre, tandis que le docte maître, aux larges lunettes sur le nez, relit avec délices, sans paraître se soucier de tout ce tapage, quelque vieil et incompréhensible auteur. Le maître désigne à chaque élève le passage que celui-ci doit confier à sa mémoire et lui donne la prononciation et le ton des caractères qui s'y trouvent : l'élève retourne à sa place, et chante sa leçon de sa voix nasillarde ; puis, à un moment donné, quand il la sait on croit la savoir, il va se placer devant la table du maître en tournant le dos à ce dernier qui a son livre en main, et la récite au milieu du vacarme de l'école.

Au contraire de ce qui se passe chez nous, jamais le professeur, dans les premières années d'école, n'explique un ouvrage aux élèves. L'instruction et la méthode d'enseigner des chinois sont bien différentes des nôtres : en Chine, les premières années de l'enfance se passent à lire et à répéter à haute voix et à apprendre par cœur sans en savoir en aucune façon le sens, les phrases de deux livres élémentaires très difficiles par eux-mêmes, après que le *sien-cheng* ou professeur a donné seulement la prononciation et le ton de tous les caractères, et à écrire ceux-ci sur des petits carrés de papier séparés pour les retenir plus aisément et s'appliquer à manier

le pinceau. Il n'est pas d'enfant, même après plusieurs années de classe, qui puisse vous expliquer une seule phrase des volumes qu'il sait réciter; les canoniques sont étudiés de même: on ne fait appel qu'à la mémoire des élèves sans jamais développer leur intelligence. Le mot de Montaigne: "*La mémoire est l'étui de la science*" est bien plus vrai encore chez les chinois que tout autre peuple. Au début, la mémoire est tout, l'intelligence, rien. C'est seulement au bout de quatre ou cinq ans en moyenne, après que l'élève, au prix d'efforts prodigieux, est parvenu à retenir intégralement, sans en comprendre une seule ligne, les ouvrages les plus intelligibles de la littérature chinoise, que le professeur explique et commente alors ces derniers.¹

Telle est la méthode ennuyeuse et peu intelligente que les jeunes chinois sont obligés de suivre: elle a au moins pour résultat de développer leur mémoire d'une façon prodigieuse: à force d'exercer cette faculté les lettrés arrivent à exécuter des tours de force vraiment remarquables, comme par exemple de réciter des ouvrages entiers quelquefois dix ou vingt ans après les avoir appris.

En sortant de l'école nous traversons le canal; sur la rive gauche, presque vis à vis de la grande pagode, nous visitons le 課桑園 *K'o-sang-yuan*, Jardin des Mûriers, établi par un mandarin nommé Fan. On y voit des plantations de mûriers et une certaine quantité de grandes jarres en terre brune de Ningpo, enfoncées en terre jusqu'au bord, qui servent d'aquariums. Des poissons de mille espèces différentes, aux formes et couleurs plus ou moins extraordinaires, s'y livrent à des jeux folâtres. Nous regrettons notre ignorance profonde en pisciculture qui ne nous permet pas de désigner ces citoyens de la gent aquatique par leurs noms scientifiques, ni de reconnaître s'il en est parmi eux qui soient inconnus en Europe.

1. Voir notre traduction du 朱柏廬家訓 *Tchou Pô-lou Kia-hiun*, *Instructions familières du Dr. Tchou Pô-lou*, Péking—Paris 1881, préface.

De là nous traversons la ville entière du nord au sud; nous suivons, au milieu d'une foule demi-nue, bousculante, curieuse, une rue assez droite que flanquent de nombreuses boutiques: restaurants, thés, chapeliers, tailleurs, marchands de soieries, ferblantiers, etc. Plusieurs parties de la rue sont couvertes de nattes, et garnies d'étoffes et d'enseignes pendantes au dessus de la tête des passans. Il y règne une atmosphère étouffante et une odeur particulière qui rappellent assez la fameuse rue des pharmaciens à Canton. Nous voyons beaucoup de librairies à rayons surchargés de volumes non reliés, posés à plat, d'où émergent de petites bandes de papier portant le titre de l'ouvrage. Il se publie beaucoup de livres à Sou-tchéou: aussi y sont-ils à bon marché. Les éditions de Sou-tchéou, connues des amateurs sous le nom de *Sou-pan*,¹ planches de Sou (tchéou), sont très estimées: elles sont fort nettes, et exemptes de fautes d'impression qui fourmillent généralement dans les livres peu coûteux. Après celles du palais de Péking, ce sont les meilleures de tout l'Empire.

A peu de distance du rempart méridional nous apercevons le 文廟 *Ouen-miaô* ou Temple de Confucius dont "*les murs d'enceinte brillent de l'éclat du vermillon.*" Il est semblable à tous les autres: même construction, même salle, mêmes tablettes, mêmes inscriptions, et même solitude. Dans les cours beaucoup d'herbes poussant entre les interstices des pavés: partout un manque de soin général. Du reste les autorités locales et les lettrés n'y viennent qu rarement pour y accomplir quelques cérémonies, notamment quand il s'agit de présenter à l'illustre Saint les lettrés reçus aux derniers examens.

Non loin de là, presque vis-à-vis le yamen du Siun-fou ou Gouverneur de la province, est le grand jardin appelé 滄浪亭

1. 蘇板

Ts'ang-lang-t'ing, Pavillons de Ts'ang-lang.¹ Au dessus de la porte on lit : 五百名賢祠 ou *paï ming hien sseu*, temple des cinq cents célèbres sages. Nous entrons moyennant une rétribution d'une dizaine de sapèques : comme ceux que nous avons vus, le jardin de Ts'ang-lang est rempli de jolis kiosques entourés d'eau, de rochers fantastiques (notons une grotte factice formée par ces rocs), de pavillons, de galeries, etc. Une grande salle contient les portraits des cinq cents sages accompagnés de notices biographiques : le tout gravé en blanc sur fond noir.

En face d'une autre jolie salle, "*le Temple de l'éclatante doctrine*"², se trouve un pavillon précédé d'une scène : il paraît que l'on y joue parfois la comédie.

En quittant le Ts'ang-lang-t'ing nous nous dirigeons à nouveau vers le nord et, par un dédale de petites rues,

1. Ce nom de *Ts'ang-lang* est une allusion classique. Confucius, se promenant un jour avec ses disciples sur les bords d'un cours d'eau appelé *t'sang-lang* (dans le Chan-toung, au dire des commentateurs), entendit un enfant qui chantait :

滄浪之水清兮
可以濯我纓
滄浪之水濁兮
可以濯我足

L'eau du Ts'ang-lang est elle pure ?

Je pourrai y laver les franges de mon chapeau.

L'eau du Ts'ang-lang est elle trouble ?

Je pourrai y laver mes pieds.

Confucius dit alors : "Disciples ! Ecoutez cette chanson : si l'eau est pure, alors il y lavera les franges de son chapeau ; si l'eau est trouble, alors il y lavera ses pieds ; c'est lui-même qui en décidera" (*Meng-tseu*, 下孟 *Hià-meng* chap. I § 8.)

Les poètes ont vanté la beauté du jardin de Ts'ang-lang ; voici quelques vers à ce sujet :

Le jardin de Ts'ang-lang est un endroit convenable pour inviter des amis :

L'eau qui y coule est plus pure que celle des lacs et des sources.

Tous les fonctionnaires doivent la regarder pour devenir dignes et intègres (aussi purs qu'elle).

Lorsqu'on se repose ici il faut penser au nom même du jardin.

2. 明道堂 *Ming-taò t'ang*.

débouchons sur une grande place à l'extrémité de laquelle s'élève le 三 清 殿 *Sam-t'ing-tien* Temple des Trois Purs.

Cette grande et belle place est l'*agora* de Sou-tchéou : là se donne rendez-vous en quelque sorte une foule mêlée, grouillante, bruyante, ondulée en tous sens. Le paysan convoie le lettré; le couli, le fonctionnaire. Tous vont et viennent, s'arrêtent un instant aux devantures des petites boutiques, semblables à celles qu'au jour de l'an l'on voit garnir les boulevards de Paris, on se courbent pour examiner les étalages installés par terre. Une vraie foire des environs de Paris. On y trouve tout ce qu'on désire : vaisselle neuve et ancienne, poteries, bibelots, bronzes, jouets, sucreries, vieux galons, tout git pêle-mêle sur de vicilles étoffes déteintes par la pluie et le soleil. Ici, un marchand de vieux habits, installé au centre de ses guenilles empilées, rature en silence en fumant sa pipe et daigne à peine répondre aux questions de ceux qui lui demandent le prix de ses marchandises. Là, un autre exhibe de son étalage un collier de mandarin qui, peut-être après avoir orné le cou d'un vice-roi, est venu s'échouer entre ses crasseuses mains. Voici un *souan-ning-ti*, diseur de bonne aventure, qui débite ses oracles embrouillés à la foule réunie au tour de sa petite table : avec sa faconde habituelle il annonce à celui-ci qu'il réussira à tous ses examens, à celui-là qu'il obtiendra un fils, ce *desideratum* de tous les chinois, à cet autre il promet honneurs et fortune. On le consulte sur le choix d'un jour propice pour un mariage : aussitôt il sort d'un tiroir un petit volume rouge à titre jaune et le feuillette. Ce livre est le 時 憲 書 *che-chien-chou*, Almanach Impérial composé par l'Observatoire Impérial de Péking : il indique les jours propices pour toutes les actions de la vie, les jours *nefas* pendant lesquels il est défendu de faire de la musique, de donner des festins, de se marier, d'aller au théâtre, etc. Vient ensuite la liste des fêtes de l'année, des jours où l'on peut bâtir une maison, puis des vingt-quatre termes solaires avec le lever et le coucher du soleil pour chaque jour de l'an suivant

la latitude de chaque place. Jusqu'ici le volume est imprimé en rouge, couleur d'heureux augure. Suit, en noir, le calendrier même donnant la liste des cérémonies qu'il faut accomplir chaque jour. Enfin, une liste de cycles et des animaux symboliques à l'usage des chiromanciens clot l'ouvrage.

Tout à côté, une foule compacte, bouche et yeux béants, admire un faiseur de tours qui, nu jusqu'à la ceinture, fait jaillir une pluie de petits morceaux de bambou de son nez, de ses yeux et de ses oreilles, ou bien avale cinq petites tasses et, une seconde après, en fait sortir six de son gosier. Les mots 極怪極怪 *k'i-kouai, k'i-kouai*, c'est extraordinaire, courent de bouches en bouches. Les chinois sont très forts pour le 變戲法 *prien-chi-fu*, c'est à dire l'escamotage: leurs tours ne déparaient par la scène de Robert Houdin.

Devant un *thé* dont les tables protégées par des nattes regorgent de consommateurs qui hument une tasse de thé, décortiquent des graines sèches de pastèque, et tirent quelques bouffées d'une pipe à eau, un médecin ambulant, vendeur de drogues, a établi son échoppe. Il a des remèdes pour tous les maux, mais se garde bien de vous en indiquer la composition, ce sont autant de "*secrets de famille*." Souffrez-vous des dents? Il vous fait prendre une certaine poudre dont vous vous frottez la mâchoire, puis vous enjoint de la cracher dans un bol plein d'eau: l'opération finie il retire triomphalement du bol un petit ver qu'il prétend être la cause de votre mal. Avez-vous une jambe cassée? il vous donne une pommade infailible qui ressoudera les parties disjointes, fera repousser l'os broyé et vous remettra sur pied comme si rien n'était. Bien plus, il vous promet que vous marcherez même mieux qu'avant. La dysenterie la plus opiniâtre vous couche-t-elle sur le flanc, vite, mâchez une racine spéciale, et vous serez guéris! En réalité, la plupart de ces drogues sont formées d'éléments hétéroclites, de dents de rhinocéros broyées, d'os fossiles réduits en poudre, de mousse sèche, de peaux de serpents, etc. Quelquefois elles ont des effets surprenans, exagérés par la populace i-

ignorante qui accorde toute confiance au médecin ambulant.

Mais ce sont les conteurs qui attirent et retiennent autour d'eux le plus de badauds.

De même qu'au Moyen Âge, chez nous, les troubadours allaient chanter leurs ballades de châteaux en châteaux, de même aujourd'hui, en Chine, les conteurs, appelés 說書 *siq chò-chou-ti*, diseurs d'histoires, vont narrer leur répertoire de ville en ville, de province en province. Ces conteurs prennent leur bien un peu où ils le trouvent, dans les recueils de nouvelles ou de contes fantastiques, aussi bien que dans les annales dont ils arrangent à leur manière les événemens. Ce genre de littérature est particulièrement estimé des chinois et, par suite, le narrateur est toujours sûr d'avoir nombreux auditoire; d'ailleurs les chinois y excellent. Dans l'art de raconter, a-t-on dit avec beaucoup de raison, ils ont une supériorité qui ne semble pas contestable.

Le conteur installe devant lui une petite table où il pose son éventail, sa pipe et sa tasse de thé, inséparables compagnons de ses pérégrinations, puis range autour, en rectangle ou en carré, plusieurs rangs de longs bancs crasseux, luisans de graisse, où viennent s'asseoir les auditeurs. Avant de commencer, il fait une collecte et chacun donne selon ses moyens, cinq, dix ou vingt sapèques: il retronse alors ses manches et attaque son récit, qu'il souligne de grimaces effrayantes ou accompagne de gestes pathétiques, selon les circonstances. Il tient ainsi son auditoire sous le charme pendant des heures entières. Sans quitter des yeux le narrateur, les uns bourrent leur pipe, aspirent quelques bouffées, décortiquent des graines sèches de pastèque ou des noyaux de pêches, ou bien se livrent sous leurs habits à une chasse généralement fructueuse; les autres hument avec délices la tasse de thé qu'un marchand ambulant leur tend pour deux sapèques, ou dévorent un petit pain cuit à l'étuvée.

Il y a souvent autour de ces conteurs une foule nombreuse que l'on peut évaluer sans exagération à deux cents personnes. Sur les larges trottoirs des vastes et poudreux boulevards de

Péking nous avons vu plus d'une fois des assistances encore plus considérables dont il ne serait pas agréable de s'approcher trop près; les gens du nord sont en effet plus sales que ceux du midi: si ceux-ci se lavent quelquefois, ceux-là ne le font jamais. Jugez de la répulsion que l'on éprouve, si on a un nerf olfactif tant soit peu délicat, lorsqu'il faut longer une de ces cohues nauséabondes. Il a été dit que le bruit est l'atmosphère des chinois: on pourrait dire avec autant de raison que la saleté est leur vie même.

Comme nous nous approchons d'un de ces groupes populeux, nous voyons le conteur terminer sa collecte, retrousser ses manches et prendre place derrière sa petite table. Ainsi qu'un orateur, il avale une gorgée de thé (le verre d'eau sucrée antique et solennel) et commence son récit: nous l'écoutons avec attention, et, charmé par sa diction, traduisons sténographiquement le joli conte qu'il nous débite:

Yen-tche ou une cause célèbre en Chine.

Sous le règne de l'empereur K'ang-hi (1662-1723) vivait dans la ville de T'oung-tch'ang, province du Chan-toung, un certain Docteur Pien qui exerçait la profession de vétérinaire et avait pour spécialité la guérison des maladies de l'espèce bovine. Pien avait une fille aussi intelligente que belle qu'il adorait jusqu'à l'idolâtrie: il aurait voulu lui trouver un mari de bonne extraction et de réputation sans tache, mais malheureusement les notables et les lettrés de la ville méprisait le docteur à cause de sa pauvreté et de son vil métier, et ne voulaient pas s'allier à sa famille. Yen-tché, tel était le nom de cette jeune beauté, avait donc atteint l'âge du mariage sans avoir été fiancée.

Or, en face de la maison de Pien, demeurait Madame Ouang, femme du nommé Si, personne peu honnête et de joyeuse vie, qui venait souvent dans le gynécée du docteur discourir avec Yen-tché. Un jour que cette dernière reconduisait son amie jusqu'à la porte de la maison, elle aperçut un jeune homme

d'une beauté peu commune vêtu de blanc des pieds à la tête, qui passait dans la rue. A sa vue, la jeune fille fut comme frappée par la foudre et le suivit longtemps des yeux : le jeune homme, la tête baissée, continua rapidement sa marche sans voir qu'il était l'objet d'un examen si attentif. Il était déjà loin que Yen-tché le regardait encore et ne pouvait détourner les yeux de sa personne.

—Vous êtes si belle, dit à la jeune fille Madame Ouang qui avait subrepticement observé ce qui se passait, que vous pourriez vous unir à un si beau jeune homme : de la sorte vous n'auriez rien à vous reprocher l'un l'autre.

Un flot de carmin monta au visage de la jeune fille qui ne répondit point.

—Connaissez-vous ce monsieur ? lui demanda Madame Ouang.

—Non, répliqua Yen-tché.

—Eh bien ! continua son amie, c'est le bachelier Aô qui demeure dans la rue Méridionale : c'est le fils du licencié Tsi-cou 'Houô. Je le connais beaucoup, ayant été autrefois sa voisine. Il n'est aucun homme en ce monde qui ait un air aussi agréable ; il porte actuellement des vêtements blancs parceque le deuil qu'il porte à cause de la mort de sa femme n'est pas encore terminé. Si vous voulez l'épouser, il faut charger quelqu'un d'aller le trouver et lui dire d'envoyer un entremetteur.

Yen-tché ne répondit pas et laissa partir Madame Ouang riant de sa plaisanterie. Quelques jours s'étant écoulés sans qu'elle en eut des nouvelles, elle pensa que son amie n'avait pas en le temps d'aller voir le bachelier, ou que celui-ci, descendant d'un noble famille, ne voulait pas s'abaisser jusqu'à elle. Elle était plongée dans la plus complète incertitude : elle ne cessait de penser à ce jeune lettré. Elle en perdit peu à peu le boire et le manger et tomba véritablement malade.

Sur ces entrefaites, Madame Ouang vint la voir et s'enquit de la cause de sa maladie.

—Je n'en sais rien moi-même, répliqua la jeune fille, si ce n'est que depuis le jour où vous vintes me voir, et après que

nous eûmes pris congé l'une de l'autre, je me suis sentie mal à mon aise. Maintenant je n'ai plus qu'un souffle de vie et sens que je vais bientôt expirer.

—Mon mari est parti pour les affaires de son commerce, dit Madame Ouang à voix basse, et comme il n'est pas encore de retour, je n'ai eu personne sous la main pour avertir M. Aô; n'est-ce pas là la cause de votre maladie?

Yen-tché rougit pendant très longtemps et ne dit mot.

—C'est évidemment cela qui vous rend malade, continua en badinant Madame Ouang; qui vous arrête encore? Il faut le faire venir un soir pourqu'il vous voie: s'y refusera-t-il?

—Ah! dit la jeune fille en soupirant, puisqu'il en est ainsi, oui, je ne puis m'empêcher de l'aimer. Je serais guérie certainement si, ne méprisant pas ma condition obscure et ma pauvreté, il envoyait un entremetteur; mais jamais, jamais je ne lui accorderai de rendez-vous secret.

—Soit, répartit Madame Ouang, et elle s'en alla.

Dans sa jeunesse, Madame Ouang, avait eu des relations avec un de ses voisins nommé Sou Kié; celui-ci épiait le départ du mari et, ce dernier parti, venait voir sa belle. Cette nuit là même, Sou vint trouver Madame Ouang qui, pour plaisanter, lui raconta ce qu'avait dit Yen-tché et lui enjoignit en badinant d'aller avertir le bachelier Aô. En entendant cela, Sou, qui depuis longtemps connaissait la beauté de Yen-tché, se réjouit secrètement: il voyait là une occasion dont lui-même pourrait profiter. Il allait faire part de son projet à Madame Ouang, mais, se souvenant que celle-ci était excessivement jalouse et craignant d'amener une scène, il se contenta de dire quelques mots en l'air et s'enquit avec soin de la situation de l'appartement de Yen-tché et des portes qui y donnaient accès.

La nuit suivante, il pénétra par escalade dans la maison du docteur et alla droit à la chambre de la jeune fille: il frappa du doigt à la fenêtre.

—Qui est-là? demanda Yen-tché de l'intérieur.

—C'est moi, le bachelier Aô, répondit Sou.

—Ah! dit la jeune fille, je pensais à vous, et désirais, non pas vous voir une seule fois, mais être unie à vous pour toujours. Si vous m'aimez réellement, il faut que vous fassiez venir un entremetteur: je n'oserais vous accorder de rendez-vous secret.

Sou acquiesça à ce qu'elle venait de dire mais la supplia instamment de lui permettre de serrer sa main en guise de gage: Yen-tché ne voulait pas qu'il entrât, mais il parvint à ouvrir la porte de force et pénétra dans la chambre. Il saisit la jeune fille dans ses bras: celle-ci, incapable de résister, tomba à terre presque sans souffle. . . .

—D'où vient ce méchant homme? s'écria-t-elle quand Sou voulut l'attirer à lui. Vous n'êtes certainement pas M. Aô: lui au moins a de bonnes manières et est bien élevé; me sachant malade, il me traiterait plus doucement. Pourquoi me rudoyer ainsi? si vous me touchez de nouveau, j'appelle au secours immédiatement: on ne manquera pas d'accourir et votre réputation en souffrira aussi bien que la mienne.

Craignant que son déguisement ne fût découvert, Sou n'osa pas employer la violence à nouveau, mais supplia Yen-tché de lui accorder un autre rendezvous. La jeune fille lui ayant répondu qu'il ne la reverrait que le jour de leur mariage, il répliqua que c'était une époque encore bien lointaine et la pressa de nouveau. Yen-tché, affaibli, lui dit alors qu'il pourrait la revoir lorsqu'elle serait guérie, mais refusa de lui donner un gage quelconque; Sou lui saisit pour lors un des pieds, dénoua le soulier brodé et allait l'emporter quand Yen-tché l'arrêta par ces paroles:

—Que ne pourrais-je encore vous donner, puisque je me donne moi-même à vous? Mais je crains que l'on ne suppose ce qui n'est pas et qu'on ne jase sur notre compte. Je crois que vous ne me rendrez pas le vil objet que vous m'avez ravi: sachez qu'il ne me reste plus qu'à mourir si vous ne m'êtes pas fidèle.

Sou sortit et alla demander gîte à Madame Ouang. Tout en reposant, il n'oubliait pas la pantoufle dont il s'était emparé et il tâta secrètement la manche de sa tunique où il l'avait cachée: elle n'y était plus! Il se leva sur-le-champ et

alluma une lampe : il chercha dans tous ses habits, mais en vain. Il ne répondit pas aux questions de Madame Ouang et soupçonna que celle-ci avait caché la pantoufle : ce soupçon était presque confirmé par le sourire qui errait sur les lèvres de cette dernière. Enfin, ne pouvant plus cacher ce qu'il avait fait, il se décida à avouer tout. Quand il eut tout raconté, Madame Ouang et Sou prirent chacun une lampe et firent de nouvelles recherches aussi bien dans la chambre qu'au dehors, mais sans pouvoir rien trouver : chagrin de son action, Sou revint se coucher ; il espérait qu'il avait perdu la pantoufle en chemin et que, comme il faisait nuit, personne ne la trouverait. Le lendemain matin il reprit ses investigations, mais elles furent inutiles comme les premières.

Or vivait dans la même rue un nommé Maô, l'aîné de plusieurs frères, vaurien et vagabond qui avait déjà maintes fois, mais sans succès, poursuivi Madame Ouang de ses obsessions. Comme il savait que Sou avait des relations avec elle, il voulut profiter de ce que le mari était absent pour aller surprendre les deux amans en flagrant délit et forcer dans la suite Madame Ouang à ne plus lui tenir rigueur. Le soir même où Sou avait été chez Yen-tché, il mit son projet à exécution : il poussa la porte de l'enclos de l'habitation de Madame Ouang et le verrou n'en ayant pas été tiré, s'introduisit facilement dans le jardin. A peu de distance de la chambre de Madame Ouang il marcha sur un objet mou comme du satin : il le ramassa et vit que c'était une pantoufle de femme enveloppée d'un mouchoir. Il se baissa près de la fenêtre pour écouter ce que disaient les deux amans, et entendit toute leur conversation : cela lui suggéra un plan nouveau ; il sortit content de l'enclos sans faire le moindre bruit.

Quelques jours plus tard il s'introduisit le soir dans la maison de Yen-tché en franchissant le mur, mais, ne connaissant pas les lieux, alla frapper par erreur à la chambre du docteur Pien. Celui-ci, réveillé, regarda par la fenêtre, et, voyant un homme, se douta d'après son air et ses apparences qu'il devait être venu pour sa fille : il se sentit transporté de colère, se saisit d'un

couteau et alla droit sur lui. Maô, effrayé, prit la fuite, mais au moment où il était sur le point de franchir le mur, serré de près par Pien qui l'avait poursuivi, ne sachant où fuir, il se retourna tout-à-coup et arracha le couteau des mains du docteur. A cette vue, la mère de Yen-tché, qui avait suivi son mari, poussa un cri terrible : Maô, ne pouvant plus échapper, plongea le couteau dans la tête de Pien

La jeune fille, dont la santé allait un peu mieux et qui s'était levée en entendant du bruit, accourut sur ces entrefaites; sa mère et elle éclairèrent le lieu de la scène; le vieillard avait le crâne ouvert et ne pouvait plus parler. Un instant après il rendait le dernier soupir. La mère trouva au pied du mur une pantoufle brodée et la reconnut comme appartenant à sa fille: elle pressa celle-ci de questions. Yen-tché raconta en pleurant ce qui s'était passé: toutefois elle ne voulut pas compromettre Madame Ouang et dit que le bachelier Aô était venu de lui-même.

Le jour venu, on fit prévenir le Tché-hien ou Magistrat de district qui fit arrêter Aô: celui-ci, âgé de dix-neuf ans, ne savait pas s'exprimer et rougissait comme un enfant à la vue d'un étranger. Il eut une peur épouvantable et, amené au prétoire, ne sut que dire. Ces apparences indisposèrent le magistrat contre lui: il le fit mettre à la torture. Un lettré ne peut supporter un traitement aussi douloureux: aussi Aô avoua-t-il qu'il était coupable. Il fut conduit à la préfecture où il subit les mêmes tortures. Toutes les fois qu'il était confronté avec Yen-tché, celle-ci l'accablait d'invectives et de malédictions: Aô, interdit, avait la langue pour ainsi dire liée et ne savait que dire pour sa défense: il fut condamné à mort.

Tous les magistrats qui examinèrent l'affaire furent du même avis et crurent Aô coupable. Enfin l'affaire fut portée en dernier ressort à Tsi-nan-fou, capitale de la province du Chan-toung, devant le tribunal du Gouverneur Vou Nan-tai, magistrat connu pour son intelligence et son intégrité. Dès que Vou Nan-tai eut vu Aô, il remarqua que celui-ci n'avait pas

l'air d'un assassin : il envoya des gens l'interroger secrètement et parvint peu à peu à lui faire dire la vérité. Il vit bien que le bachelier Aô avait été injustement condamné et réfléchit mûrement à toute l'affaire pendant plusieurs jours. Il se décida à recommencer les interrogatoires : il commença par Yen-tché.

— Quelqu'un a-t-il su, demanda-t-il, que vous aviez fixé un rendez-vous avec le bachelier Aô ?

— Personne, répondit la jeune fille.

— Y avait-il d'autres personnes avec vous quand vous avez rencontré Aô ?

— Personne, répliqua encore Yen-tché.

Vou fit alors venir Aô et lui adressa quelques bonnes paroles pour l'encourager.

— Lorsque je suis passé devant la porte de la maison, dit de lui-même Aô, je n'ai vu qu'une de mes anciennes voisines, Madame Ouang, qui sortait avec une jeune fille. J'ai marché rapidement devant elles et ne leur ai pas adressé une seule parole.

— Vous venez de dire, s'écria Vou en se tournant vers Yen-tché, qu'il n'y avait personne avec vous ! Comment se fait-il qu'il y avait une voisine ?

Il allait faire mettre la jeune fille à la torture quand celle-ci, effrayée :

— Oui, il y avait bien avec moi Madame Ouang, mais l'affaire ne la concerne en rien.

Vou renvoya les deux personnes confrontées, et ordonna d'aller quérir Madame Ouang ; celle-ci arriva quelques jours après et, sur l'ordre du juge, fut mise dans une cellule à part pour qu'elle ne communiquât pas avec Yen-tché. Elle fut amenée devant le tribunal.

— Quel est le meurtrier ? lui demanda dès l'abord Vou Nan-taï.

— Je n'en sais rien, répondit Madame Ouang.

—Cependant Yen-tché a dit que vous connaissiez parfaitement celui qui a tué son père : pourquoi le nier ?

—C'est un mensonge ! s'écria Madame Ouang ; cette fille perdue ne pensait qu'à se marier : j'ai bien, il est vrai, parlé d'entremetteur, mais c'était uniquement pour rire ; comment puis-je savoir quel est l'amant qu'elle a introduit elle-même chez elle ?

Interrogée plus minutieusement, elle raconta dans tous les détails ce qu'elle avait dit en badinant.

—Vous avez dit, s'écria Vou en colère en s'adressant à la jeune fille, que cette personne ne savait rien : pourquoi donc avoue-t-elle elle-même qu'elle voulait vous réunir à celui que vous aimiez ?

—J'ai mal agi, s'écria la jeune fille en pleurant, j'ai été la cause de la mort de mon pauvre père ! sait-on quand cette affaire sera finie et combien d'autres personnes y seront encore impliquées ? ah ! vraiment je ne puis supporter tant de chagrins !

Vou interrogea de nouveau Madame Ouang.

—Une fois que vous eûtes fini de plaisanter, parlâtes-vous à quelqu'un de ce qui s'était passé ?

—A personne.

—Cependant, dit Vou, lorsque les époux sont ensemble il n'est point de chose qu'ils ne se disent : comment pouvez-vous dire que vous n'en avez parlé à personne ?

—Mon mari est depuis longtemps absent et n'est pas encore de retour.

—Les esprits moqueurs, dit le juge, se rient de la bêtise des autres pour faire briller leur propre intelligence : qui pensez-vous donc tromper en disant que vous n'en avez soufflé mot ?

Il ordonna de comprimer les doigts de Madame Ouang : celle-ci, ne pouvant supporter la souffrance, avoua qu'elle en avait parlé à Sou. Là-dessus, Vou fit mettre Aô en liberté et arrêter Sou. Ce dernier, à peine arrivé devant le juge, déclara qu'il ne savait rien. "Ceux qui vivent chez une femme ne peuvent être d'honnêtes gens, déclara Vou," et il le fit mettre à

la torture la plus dure. Sou avoua qu'il avait trompé la jeune fille, mais affirma que depuis qu'il avait perdu la pantoufle il n'avait pas osé retourner chez le docteur, et qu'il ignorait réellement comment le meurtre avait été commis. Le juge lui dit qu'un homme qui escaladait les murailles était capable de tous les crimes et le fit de nouveau torturer: Sou fut forcé d'avouer que c'était lui qui avait commis le crime. Condamné à mort, il dut attendre en prison l'époque des grandes exécutions d'automne. L'habileté de Vou en cette circonstance fut vantée et exaltée par tout le monde.

Cependant Sou, encore que dépravé et de moeurs perdues, n'en était pas moins un lettré célèbre de la province. Sachant que l'Inspecteur de l'université Ché était un homme très capable et d'une intelligence peu commune et avait de la commisération pour les lettrés, il rédigea en un style triste et lamentable une pétition où il expliquait l'injustice dont il souffrait. Ché examina longtemps le dossier de l'affaire et réfléchit attentivement au cas qui se présentait: subitement il frappa d'un coup de poing la table sur laquelle il était accoudé et s'écria: "Ce bachelier a certainement subi une injustice." Il fit donc comparaître de nouveau Sou devant le gouverneur de la province pour instruire derechef l'affaire. Il demanda dès l'abord à Sou où il avait perdu la pantoufle: ce dernier répondit qu'il l'ignorait, mais qu'en tout cas il l'avait encore dans sa manche lorsqu'il avait frappé à la porte de Madame Ouang. Ché interrogea alors celle-ci:

—Outre Sou Kié, quels autres amans aviez-vous?

—Aucun, répliqua Madame Ouang.

—Est-il admissible, continua Ché, qu'une femme qui se livre à la débauche n'ait qu'un seul amant?

—Sou Kié et moi, répondit Madame Ouang, nous avons eu des relations dès notre jeunesse, et nous n'avons pu les rompre plus tard. Il y a certainement eu des gens qui m'ont poursuivi de leurs obsessions, mais je ne leur ai jamais cédé.

—Indiquez-nous l'un de ces individus!

—Il y avait entre autres mon voisin Maô, que j'ai toujours repoussé, dit Madame Ouang.

—Il n'est pas croyable que vous soyez devenu aussi chaste que cela, reprit le juge. Personne n'a-t-il profité de l'absence de votre mari pour venir vous voir?

—En effet, répondit Madame Ouang, un tel et un tel sont venus une ou deux fois à la maison soit pour emprunter de l'argent, soit pour m'offrir des présens, mais, encore que ces gens eussent des vues sur moi, ils ne les ont pas déclarées.

Ché fit prendre en note les noms de ces individus et envoya des sbires les arrêter. Quand ils furent tous arrivés, il se rendit avec eux au temple du dieu tutélaire de la cité et les fit mettre à genoux devant l'autel.

—J'ai vu l'autre jour en rêve, leur dit-il, ce Génie qui m'a assuré que le meurtrier était l'un de vous. Nous voici maintenant en présence du Génie, vous ne pouvez mentir : si le coupable veut avouer lui-même son crime, je pourrai peut-être avoir encore de l'indulgence pour lui ; sinon, il n'aura à espérer aucune pitié.

Tous répondirent qu'ils n'étaient pas coupables.

Ché les fit mettre à la torture : tous, la queue roulée autour de la tête, dans la nudité la plus complète, criaient qu'ils étaient innocens.

—Eh bien ! dit Ché en ordonnant de les délier, puisque le coupable ne veut pas se déclarer, c'est le Génie lui-même qui va le désigner.

Sur ses ordres, les fenêtres furent calfeutrées avec des nattes et des tapis pour que le jour ne pût pénétrer dans le temple, puis les accusés, revêtus uniquement de leur pantalon, furent laissés dans l'obscurité.

On plaça devant chacun une cuvette où ils durent se laver les mains : puis, cela fait, ils furent attachés au pied du mur. Ché leur ordonna de tourner le visage vers la muraille et de ne plus bouger : "le Génie, dit-il, viendra écrire quelques mots sur le dos du coupable."

Il sortit et fit fermer la porte du temple. Quelques instants après il la faisait rouvrir et examinait les accusés les uns après les autres; quand il eut vu Maô, il s'écria: "voici le vrai meurtrier."

Ché avait enjoint de couvrir le mur de cendres et de bone et avait fait mettre dans les cavettes de l'eau noire comme le charbon. Le coupable, craignant que le Génie ne vint écrire sur son dos, s'était adossé à la muraille et s'était ainsi sali; puis, au moment de sortir, il avait protégé son dos avec ses mains noires de charbon et s'était encore noirci.

Les soupçons de Ché sur la culpabilité de Maô furent ainsi confirmés; l'Inspecteur ordonna de mettre le meurtrier à la plus dure torture: celui-ci avoua alors toute la vérité.

Le jugement de Ché fut ainsi conçu: "Que Sou Kié soit mis en liberté; ce lettré, tout pervers, tout dissolu qu'il est, n'en a pas moins eu pitié des gémissemens de Yen-tché malade et n'agit pas à son égard comme un épervier: il avait donc encore des sentimens dignes d'un lettré. Il eut le tort de prendre la pantoufle comme gage de l'hymen et de la perdre: il repassa la muraille comme un papillon, mais quelqu'un caché dans l'herbe entendit ce qui se disait sur la route.¹ Il a souffert de terribles tortures et a failli avoir la tête tranchée: nous prenons cela en considération et usons d'indulgence à son égard, mais comme il a sali, par sa conduite, son bonnet de lettré, nous le dégradons pour un temps, lui laissant ainsi ouverte la voie du repentir et de la réformation.

"Quant à Maô-tâ, homme pervers et vagabond, qui, repoussé par une femme sa voisine n'a pu maîtriser ses mauvais penchans, s'est introduit par escalade dans la maison de la jeune fille et, comme le lièvre qui, pris dans son gîte, se retourne pour mordre le chasseur, a tué le père de Yen-tché afin de se sauver,

1. Allusion au proverbe bien connu: 路上說話草裡有人聽 *Lou-chang chô-houa, ts'âô-lî yéou jen ting*, quand on parle sur la route, il y a des gens cachés dans l'herbe qui entendent. C'est l'équivalent du nôtre: "les murs ont des oreilles."

qu'il ait la tête tranchée en châtiment de ses crimes et de sa conduite!

“Yen-tché est arrivée à l'âge du mariage: elle n'aspire qu'à trouver un mari. Il faut lui chercher un époux beau comme le jade. Que le magistrat de son district soit lui-même l'entremetteur du mariage et se mette en quête d'un mari digne d'elle.”

Ce jugement fut universellement loué. Les collègues de Ché vinrent féliciter celui-ci d'avoir tiré au clair une affaire si embrouillée.

Or, dès que le juge eut déclaré Aô innocent, la jeune fille était revenue à ses premiers sentimens: elle ne voyait plus le bachelier avec horreur puis-qu'il n'était pas l'auteur de la mort de son père. Un jour, l'audience finie, comme ils sortaient tous deux du prétoire, la jeune fille fondit en larmes: les sanglots lui déchiraient la poitrine, et l'empêchaient de prononcer une seule parole. Le bachelier fut ému de sa douleur et touché de sa beauté: dès lors il ne cessa plus nuit et jour de penser à elle; il aurait bien voulu la prendre pour femme, mais, songeant à la condition humble de Yen-tché et au vil métier qu'avait exercé son père, il craignait de devenir la risée du public. Il ne savait quel parti prendre, ni à quel dessein s'arrêter. Enfin, quand le jugement eut été prononcé et rendu public, il se décida à l'épouser; il alla trouver le magistrat de district qui fut l'entremetteur du mariage: les époux furent, suivant l'usage, conduits à leur nouvelle demeure au son des flûtes et des tambours.

Son récit terminé, notre conteur s'essuye le front, avale une tasse de thé, tire une bouffée de tabac et, infatigable, recommence une nouvelle collecte avant d'entamer une autre histoire. Imitant plusieurs auditeurs que leurs affaires appellent sans doute ailleurs, nous sortons du cercle dont le narrateur est entouré.

Nous allons visiter le *San-ts'ing-tien*, Temple des Trois Purs, qui s'élève à l'extrémité nord de l'*agora*. Le plus célèbre de ces trois *pure ones* est le grand philosophe Laô-tseu, fondateur de la doctrine du Taô ou de la Raison (*logos*). Nous entrons dans la grande salle; elle est ornée de hautes statues en bois doré: c'est à leur pied que les fidèles viennent se prosterner et brûler des bâtons parfumés. Les ailes de l'édifice sont occupées par des marchands de peintures sur papier, images à couleurs voyantes qui rappellent les produits de l'imagerie d'Epinal. Là on est coudoyé par une foule houleuse, s'arrêtant un instant pour lire les légendes ou pour discuter le prix d'une peinture avec le marchand: celui-ci, armé d'une longue perche, décroche avec patience toutes celles qu'on désire voir de plus près, et les raccroche avec non moins de patience. Une peinture entre autres attire nos regards: elle représente une école entière dont les élèves, profitant de l'absence du maître, mettent tout sens dessus dessous et font les cent coups. L'un s'est assis à la place du professeur et a mis ses larges lunettes d'écaille: il est en train de barbouiller à tort et à travers un texte de Confucius oublié sur la table; un autre, monté sur les bancs accumulés dans un coin, déclame avec force grimaces quelque poésie populaire; un troisième s'est emparé de la chaire du maître et l'emploie à un tout autre usage que celui auquel elle est destinée; tous les autres courent çà et là, crient, se bousculent, s'arrachent leurs queues, se flanquent des horions, etc. C'est vraiment une fort jolie peinture où, chose extraordinaire dans un dessin purement chinois, les lois de la perspective sont assez bien observées. Nous remarquons plusieurs autres peintures passablement étudiées: un groupe de jeunes femmes sous un arbre, les portraits des 八 仙 *pâ-hien* ou Huit Immortels,¹ etc. Malheureusement, le peintre chinois se contente d'imiter les anciens: il n'innove pas, ou bien, quand il le fait, c'est pour accoucher d'un *ridiculus mus*. Il faut le laisser suivre toujours la même ornière: le moindre écart le ferait verser.

1. Voir W. F. Mayers, *Chinese reader's Manual*, p. 338.

Derrière le grand temple se trouvent un certain nombre de petits édifices religieux: l'un porte le nom de 東嶽大殿 *Toung-yu tâ tien*, le temple de l'enfer oriental. Dans le vestibule, deux grandes statues de bois peint, génies terribles aux yeux flamboyants: de chaque côté de l'autel, deux rangées de statues à l'air également formidable. Les bas-côtés sont remplis de statuette au dessus desquelles pendent des inscriptions dans le goût de celle-ci: "Si vous demandez quelque chose aux dieux, ceux-ci vous répondront certainement."¹

En remontant vers le nord, nous voyons, près des murailles occidentales et non loin d'une maison européenne à un étage (la résidence de missionnaires protestants), un camp retranché établi, comme à Song-Kiang, dans l'intérieur même de la ville.² A la porte du sud, un soldat frappe avec deux baguettes sur un grand tambour, tandis que deux autres, embouchant de longues trompettes, font entendre des sons aigus et discordans: il paraît que c'est l'heure de l'exercice. Voici les soldats qui sortent pêle-mêle de leurs baraquemens, prennent nonchalamment leurs pistons et se rangent en désordre dans la cour: arrive le commandant, un gros mandarin joufflu, tenant d'une main un parasol de papier huilé pour se garantir du soleil et de l'autre un éventail qu'il agite tout en inspectant la ligne peu régulière des guerriers: à son commandement un caporal sort des rangs et, se plaçant devant le front, crie . . . en français: droite, gauche, etc. et la colonne de s'ébranler tant bien que mal. Ce sont les restes de l'instruction militaire donnée par nos sous-officiers aux troupes franco-chinoises du Kiang-sou.

A la porte du camp s'étale une grande proclamation ornée du sceau rouge officiel: c'est un ordre du jour du général commandant la place qui défend aux soldats de s'adonner à l'opium: "L'opium, y est-il dit, est nuisible à la santé et à la constitution de ceux qui le fument, et les soldats, plus que

1. 有求必應.

2. Voir l'article que nous avons publié dans le No. d'Avril-Mai-Juin 1882 du Journal Asiatique, *Une excursion à la ville de Song-Kiang*.

tous les autres, doivent s'abstenir de se laisser aller à ce vice. Déjà le précédent vice-roi a sévèrement interdit aux troupes de fumer l'opium, mais voici que le vice-roi actuel a entendu dire que si les soldats ne fumaient plus dans les camps, ils trouvaient moyen de le faire dans des maisons particulières, et il croit de son devoir de promulguer de nouveaux ordres à ce sujet. Outre les mesures préventives déjà prises, le général annonce que dorénavant tous les hommes seront périodiquement inspectés un à un, qu'on renverra immédiatement ceux dont le visage trahirait l'usage de l'opium et qu'on les remplacera par d'autres."

Nous retournons à notre bateau par des enfilades de petites rues s'entrecroisant à tout bout de champ, véritable dédale dans lequel nous nous égarions aisément si nous n'étions conduits par notre batelier, *né natif* des environs de Sou-tchéou et à qui les rues des villes sont aussi familières que les canaux et rivières du département. Nous passons devant de nombreux ateliers de broderies (celles de Sou-tchéou ont été renommées de tout temps) où des métiers sont mis en mouvement par de jeunes garçons.¹

Nous arrivons au logis à la nuit tombante: nous ne pouvons

1. Il existe à Sou-tchéou une manufacture impériale de soieries: là sont fabriquées de belles étoffes qui sont envoyées ensuite au Palais Impérial et enfouies dans le trésor impérial: les eunuques et les gens du palais le-soustraient de cet endroit et les revendent aux marchands de soieries de Péking. C'est ainsi qu'un grand nombre de rouleaux d'étoffes magnifiques et de robes brodées ou tissées (Sou-tchéou a la spécialité des étoffes 刻絲 *K'ô-sseu*, tissées) se trouvent annuellement mis dans le commerce. Lors de l'expédition de Chine, nos soldats mirent la main sur les magasins où étaient renfermés tous ces rouleaux et en prirent en si grand nombre qu'ils en firent des litières pour leurs chevaux.

Une autre production importante de Sou-tchéou qu'il faut noter, ce sont les belles laques rouges dites de Péking: en réalité, elles sont toutes faites à Sou-tchéou mais pour l'usage du Palais seulement, et, comme l'on n'en rencontre qu'à la Capitale (mises dans le commerce comme les soieries) les étrangers ont pris l'habitude de les désigner sous le nom de laques de Péking. Il y a de ces laques, surtout celles qui ont une certaine antiquité, qui sont très finement travaillées et fort jolies; on sait que plus elles sont lourdes et plus elles sont anciennes: nous en avons vu une, grande comme le creux de la main, datant de la dynastie des Ming, qui pesait près de deux livres.

plus songer au départ et sommes réduits à passer la nuit sur le canal.

. . . . A peine sommes-nous plongé dans le premier sommeil que des oscillations soudaines et répétées de notre bateau nous réveillent en sursaut. En même temps nous entendons des bruits de pas et un frôlement le long de la cabine, puis une, deux, trois chûtes lourdes sur le rivage et autant de mouvements de recul de la barque: c'est évidemment notre équipage qui défile et saute en hâte à terre. A cet instant, ces chocs et reculs répétés ayant fait virer de bord le house-boat, une soudaine clarté rouge pénètre vivement par la fenêtre et éclaire toute la cabine, tandis que des cris confus parmi lesquels nous percevons ceux de *tseou chow-i*, allez chercher de l'eau; *kiéou-ming*, au secours! se font entendre; en un bond nous sommes sur le pont: un incendie venait d'éclater près de la rive, en amont de notre ancrage.

Deux boutiques flambaient: l'une était celle d'un fabricant de cercueils; le feu y avait pris dans un amas de copeaux, et avait rapidement atteint et attaqué les lourdes et épaisses auges de bois blanc qui constituent les cercueils chinois: en ce moment tous les cercueils flambaient avec rage ainsi que les planches équarries dressées le long du mur. Le vernis de Ningpo crépitait dans les récipients. Au milieu de la flamme s'aperçoit l'autel du dieu des richesses que possède tout boutiquier chinois: les deux chandeliers sont rougis à blanc sur la tablette incandescente; l'image enluminée du dieu, léchée par la flamme, vient de prendre feu: la figure grotesque du Plutus chinois se tord dans de comiques convulsions.

L'autre boutique, attenante à la première, avait été rapidement atteinte: c'était un restaurant. Le feu y avait trouvé des aliments et avait broyé en peu d'instans les tables, les bancs, le comptoir, les établis; les fenêtres à petits carreaux d'écaille d'huître se fendaient dans la fournaise.

Le ravage s'étendait. Une maison située derrière était la proie de l'incendie: nous en voyons sortir plusieurs femmes chinoises, réveillées par les cris des passans et les yeux encore

bouffis de sommeil, mais qui ne sont malheureusement pas dans

le simple appareil
d'une beauté qu'on arrache au sommeil.

attendu que les chinois et chinoises se couchent généralement tout habillés sur des nattes et ne connaissent pas l'usage des draps.

La foule était devenue considérable : de tous côtés accourent des badauds agitant au bout d'un bâton leur lanterne à caractères rouges, étoiles mobiles dansant une sarabande effrénée dans leur course rapide. Parmi les assistans ce ne sont que cris, ce n'est que confusion : les malheureux boutiquiers, aidés de quelques voisins, sauvent ce qu'ils avaient de plus précieux, leurs enfans mi-endormis, quelques meubles déjà noircis . . . affolés, ils tentent d'arracher à l'élément destructeur des débris de leur fortune qui s'en va en feu et en fumée. Des maisons voisines sortent des gens qui démeublent, un certain nombre de spectateurs s'est armé de sceaux et jettent sur le foyer des potées d'eau puisée dans le canal, ce qui contribue bien plus à l'alimenter davantage qu'à l'éteindre.

Aussi l'incendie fait-il rage : les poutres et les solives des toits, attaquées par les flammes bouillonnantes du foyer, craquent dans le moment tout à la fois, oscillent un instant dans l'espace, puis tombent avec fracas dans le brasier, en faisant jaillir des flammèches qui retombent comme des flèches sur les assistans : à leur suite le toit s'abîme avec un craquement sinistre. Un mouvement se produit dans la foule qui semble s'écarter pour faire place à un cortège : c'est, le *tche-fou* ou Préfet de Sou-tchéou accompagné de son escorte de porteurs de pancartes et de lanternes, de bourreaux et d'aides de camp déguenillés, en un mot de tous les *satellites* dûs à un astre de cette grandeur. Il juge sans doute sa présence nécessaire pour calmer le courroux du Génie du feu. Sa chaise à porteurs est entourée de mandarins subalternes pressant leur marche pour la suivre ; comme dit un poète moderne :

Tous les mandarins ont revêtu leurs habits de combat,
 et courent pour éteindre cet incendie comme si c'était une rébellion :
 Le préfet de Sou-tchéou dépasse les autres par sa bravoure,
 et s'élance en avant-garde à la tête d'une troupe de soldats.
 Ils vont et viennent au milieu de la noire fumée : on ne les voit plus.
 On n'entend plus que le bruit de leurs voix qui pressent d'envoyer de
 l'eau :

Cent pompes lancent en l'air des gerbes d'eau semblables à des flèches.¹

Voyant ses efforts infructueux et l'eau insuffisante, le préfet ordonne de faire la part du feu et de le couper en démolissant les maisons voisines. Plus de huit maisons brûlaient alors et le feu menaçait de s'étendre sur tout le quartier : toutes les maisons étant en bois de ce côté, on ne sait où le ravage se serait arrêté. Circonscrit, le feu se contente de dévorer le groupe de maisons dont il est déjà maître : au matin, l'embrasement finissait faute d'aliments, et il ne restait plus de huit maisons ou boutiques que des décombres fumantes et des murs noircis : quelque chose comme les traces d'un combat.

Ordinairement, deux ou trois jours après un incendie de ce genre, il n'y paraît plus rien : en effet, après avoir patiemment tamisé la cendre pour en extraire tout ce qu'il est possible, les habitants font venir un maître-charpentier qui, en vingt-quatre heures, leur élève une nouvelle demeure, plus jolie et surtout plus propre que la précédente. Nous avons vu à Changhaï un exemple de la rapidité avec laquelle des quartiers entiers peuvent être construits : le 15 août 1879 un vaste incendie dévorait tout le quartier de l'est de la Concession Française, plus de douze cents maisons : en trois mois à peine était élevé

1. Voici le texte de ces charmans vers dûs à 袁子才 *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai* qui vécut de 1716 à 1797 :

文 武 一 色 皆 戎 粧
 奔 前 滅 火 如 滅 賊
 蘇 州 太 守 氣 尤 雄
 獨 領 一 隊 當 先 鋒
 出 沒 黑 烟 人 不 見
 但 聞 促 水 聲 朦 朧
 水 龍 百 道 橫 空 射

un nouveau quartier, plus brillant, plus propre, plus populeux que l'ancien.

Dans les villes chinoises les incendies sont presque incessants, et comme les chinois n'ont pas de vrais pompiers ni de vraies pompes, et qu'il y a toujours des gens malintentionnés qui augmentent l'incendie et le désordre pour pêcher en eau trouble, il en résulte que le moindre feu est un vrai désastre. Les chinois ne manquent généralement pas de les attribuer à l'influence maligne ou *foung chouï* (litt. vent et eau) de quelque objet voisin : une corniche peinte en rouge trop saillante, une cheminée trop haute, un montant de porte plus haut que l'autre, etc. Peu de jours avant notre passage à Sou-tchéou on avait découvert, après un incendie, que la cause n'en pouvait être autre que la présence d'une boule rouge placée au bout d'une perche en dehors de la porte située à l'extrémité de la rue. La boule fut aussitôt peinte en noir pour ne plus attirer en ces lieux le redoutable et irascible Génie du feu.

On a cité plusieurs des moyens employés par les chinois pour se mettre en garde contre cette influence maligne, comme les italiens ont certaines amulettes contre la jettatura. A Péking ils n'ont imaginé autre chose pour protéger le Palais Impérial contre la présence menaçante des deux hautes tours de la cathédrale catholique (*Peï t'ang*), qui le domine presque, que d'élever vis-à-vis un grand mur blanc. Ce que nous avons vu de plus curieux en ce genre c'est à Changhaï même : une maison européenne à plusieurs étages surplombant de toute sa hauteur une bicoque chinoise, le propriétaire de celle-ci n'avait rien trouvé de mieux à faire, pour se mettre à l'abri du *foung chouï* de l'immense construction étrangère, que de disposer sur son toit, le goulot tourné vers l'édifice menaçant, plusieurs bouteilles européennes vides !

Le peuple chinois est un peuple superstitieux par excellence, naïf et crédule, et les moindres idées fantastiques et surnaturelles suffisent pour l'affoler : aussi chez lui les chiromanciens et devins sont-ils en honneur. Pour la moindre action on les

consulte, et leurs paroles sont autant d'oracles. Que l'on nous permette de traduire ici un article publié gravement par le 申報 *Chen-paô*, ou Gazette de Changhaï, il y a quelques années; on y verra jusqu'où peut aller parfois la bêtise et la simplicité de cette nation de grands enfans. Il ne faut pas oublier que des histoires extraordinaires comme celle qui suit précèdent généralement des troubles et des voies de fait contre les étrangers, que cette effervescence est considérée comme l'oeuvre occulte des sociétés secrètes qui minent la Chine et que ce sont les chrétiens et nos missionnaires qui, par suite des dispositions peu favorables dont ils sont d'ordinaire l'objet, sont plus exposés que tous autres aux violences d'une population ainsi exaltée:

“Un de nos amis nous écrit de Sou-tchéou qu'une grande agitation règne en ce moment parmi la population. On répand le bruit que des êtres diaboliques oppressent la poitrine des gens, et, de toute la nuit, personne n'ose fermer l'oeil. Dans la nuit du 23 de ce mois, peu après la deuxième veille, au pied des remparts et le long du fossé sud de la ville, soudain retentit dans l'espace un bruit semblable à celui de plusieurs centaines de cavaliers en marche, et bientôt après l'on croit ouïr les pas de plusieurs milliers de chevaux. Au milieu de ce vacarme on distingue des vociférations, des sons de gongs, des chocs d'armes de guerre. Aussitôt les mariniers du nord de la rivière se réunissent et, brandissant des lanternes, et frappant sur des gongs, chassent ce bruit insolite qui se dirige alors de la porte du sud-est vers la porte du nord-est. A son origine, le bruit semblait flotter dans l'air; on l'entendait courir de l'est à l'ouest et réciproquement. Les amateurs de choses extraordinaires s'empressèrent de courir du nord au sud et du sud au nord pour rechercher d'où partait tout ce tapage, mais ce fut en vain. Chacun alors de frapper sur les gongs, les tambours, les plats et les assiettes et de battre des mains: les coqs poussaient leurs coquericos, les chiens aboyaient, les femmes et les enfans criaient et pleuraient: charivari extraordinaire. Mais le bruit diabolique avait cessé.

“Dans la nuit du 24 courant, un ouvrier, employé à décor-

tiquer le riz dans la maison Ta-yéou, rêvait en dormant, quand il crut sentir soudain quelqu'un qui lui marchait sur les pieds: effrayé, il se réveille, crie au secours: on accourt et l'on croit apercevoir un enfant de six à sept ans et une boule de feu emportés comme dans un tourbillon. La terreur est à son comble quand d'autres voisins frappent à la porte avec violence: on leur ouvre, mais l'enfant et la boule de feu avaient déjà disparus. On leur demande le motif de leur venue: "nous avons entendu le bruit d'un mur qui s'écroulait, et, voyant de la fumée et des flammes qui s'échappaient de la porte du magasin de riz, nous avons cru à un incendie et venons au secours."

Le 25 du même mois, à la nuit tombante, comme deux servantes demeurant dans la ruelle San-maô (les trois chats), allaient prendre le frais dans une chambre située tout au fond de la maison, un vent glacial frappe tout-à-coup l'une d'elles qui tombe évanouie et dont les pieds seuls s'agitent. Paralysée par la peur, sa compagne ne peut faire autre chose que frapper le sol du pied. Le maître de la maison accourt et aperçoit la servante étendue, la bouche écumante: il comprend qu'elle est possédée, et lui fait avaler une potion chaude grâce à laquelle elle reprend ses sens. Après cela il saisit le couvercle de la chaise percée et le brandit dans tous les sens: on entend dans l'espace un éclat de rire qui va en s'affaiblissant; le fils d'un ouvrier demeurant à l'entrée de la maison du marchand de riz, âgé de huit ans, a éprouvé les mêmes symptômes que cette servante: on a aspergé l'air avec de l'eau sale et l'enfant est revenu à la vie. L'éclat de rire s'est également fait entendre et s'est changé en un grand vacarme qui a fini par s'éteindre.

"En un mot on ne parle plus depuis quelques jours à Sou-tchéou que de diableries et de choses surnaturelles: les esprits sont frappés de crainte. Les magistrats des districts de Teh'ang-tchéou, Yuan-hô et Vou, de concert avec le mandarin militaire Tchong Tchoun, ont publié une proclamation destinée à mettre fin aux histoires qui circulent et menaçant de

punir ceux qui s'affolent sans raison.

“Les habitants de Vou-si affirment l'existence de ces êtres surnaturels. Selon eux ils ont la forme d'un chat ou d'un rat d'un pied et demi de long; ils font du bruit en arrivant et en partant, ils grimpent des pieds au ventre et à la poitrine de ceux qu'ils ont choisi comme souffre-douleur. Leur poids est égal à celui d'un demi picul de riz. Celui qui a la conscience pure doit, dès qu'il sent sur ses pieds l'être en question, se mettre sur son séant et asperger l'air avec une eau sale; les diables en papier tomberont d'eux-mêmes et resteront sans mouvement. Que sans retard il pose le couvercle sur sa chaise percée et se rende, à cent pieds environ de sa demeure, dans un endroit écarté couvert d'herbes ou d'arbustes; il trouvera là un brigand étendu comme un cadavre, sur la tête et la poitrine duquel sont collés des papiers rouges ornés de caractères magiques. L'âme de ce brigand qui s'est rendue avec le diable en papier dans la maison est enfermée dans la chaise percée et ne peut réintégrer le corps de son propriétaire. Le brigand une fois saisi, on n'a qu'à découvrir la chaise percée, l'âme retourne dans le corps du brigand qui retrouve alors l'usage de la parole. A Vou-si on a arrêté cinq individus de cette façon. Ces gens sont payés par le chef des brigands pour se coller sur la tête et l'estomac des signes cabalistiques et opprimer la poitrine des habitans pendant la nuit; on saisit plus difficilement ceux qui écrivent ces caractères cabalistiques, car ils se cachent soigneusement.

“Chaque oppression est accompagnée d'une lueur: elle rapporte tant à ceux qui la font; l'homme en papier qui a opprimé trois fois une personne acquiert par cela même la faculté de se mouvoir; il s'est en quelque sorte emparé de l'âme de sa victime et il est presque insaisissable. Après avoir opéré quatre oppressions, l'homme de papier est capable d'exécuter tous les ordres qu'on lui donne. Celui qui en a subi quatre meurt, et une prime est accordée à l'opprimeur. L'esprit qui accompagne l'homme de papier a toutefois beaucoup de peine à pénétrer chez les gens, et quelquefois l'homme de papier tom-

be à terre. Ainsi l'autre jour un paysan prenant le frais est saisi par le froid et rentre chez lui : à sa porte git un homme de papier de cinq à six pouces de long ; il le prend, le cloue au mur et les voisins viennent le contempler. Non loin de là est étendu un vieillard ayant l'aspect d'un pécheur. Le paysan l'interroge : "êtes-vous malade ?"—"je souffre au coeur," répond le vieillard." Le paysan retourne chez lui, fiche deux clous dans les pieds de l'homme de papier et va de nouveau interroger le vieillard qui déclare souffrir aux pieds. Continuant son expérience, le paysan coupe la tête de l'homme en papier et quand il revient près du vieillard, il trouve celui-ci sans tête.

"Selon nous, l'homme de papier choisit de préférence les maisons écartées, et ne s'attaque guère aux maisons serrées les unes contre les autres, et dont les portes sont solides. Il a même besoin de s'informer de l'état des lieux pendant le jour ; et, à notre avis, ce sont là des diableries anodines dont on peut se préserver si l'on a les yeux ouverts. Ainsi à Vou-si, le peuple s'est organisé en gardes nationales : on surveille les nouveaux venus ; on fait des patrouilles nuit et jour ; on se rend réciproquement garant l'un vis-à-vis de l'autre et les brigands, ne pouvant plus faire leurs maléfices, se sont retirés à Sou-tchéou."

II. LES ENVIRONS DE SOU-TCHÉOU.

Départ de Sou-tchéou—Le Grand Canal Impérial—Le transport du tribut de riz—La contribution à l'édification des pagodes—'Hou-Kiéou ou la Colline du Tigre—Souvenirs historiques qui s'y rattachent : tombeau de Lu-'Hô—Le rocher des Mille : légende bouddhique.—Le tombeau de la chaste épouse—Episode de la rébellion des t'ai-p'ing—Le village de Ts'aô-meun et le jardin Léon—La Montagne de la Déesse Kouanyin—Le T'ien-ping chan et son temple—Arrivée au bourg de Mô-dô—Le Kioung-loung chan et son temple—Légende historique de Tchou Maï-tch'en—Aspect du T'ai-hou ou Grand Lac—Le Grand Lac—Arrivée à l'île orientale de Toung-t'ing—La vallée des tombeaux—Le pic de Mô-li—Retour à Changhaï.

Fatigués de la nuit agitée que nous avons passée, nous dormons encore profondément quand nos bateliers larguent les amarres et levent l'ancre : nous nous levons et, assis à l'avant de notre bateau, assistons aux évolutions savantes de la jonque au milieu des méandres du canal et des bateaux venant en sens inverse ou encore à l'ancre le long de la rive. A tout instant nous abordons ou frôlons rudement l'un d'eux, et chaque collision se traduit par des avalanches d'injures à l'adresse de notre capitaine qui sans se laisser intimider réplique sur le même ton. Nous atteignons ainsi le *Si-meun*, Porte de l'ouest, sous laquelle nous passons. En dehors, sur le bord du canal obstrué par un prodigieux amoncellement et un va-et-vient continuel de bateaux de toutes formes et de toutes grandeurs, se trouve situé un bourg populeux, turbulent,

agité. D'énormes jonques à riz à la poupe joufflue ornée des quatre mots d'heureux augure: 順風大吉 *choun fong tá ki*, vent propice et grand bonheur, sont symétriquement rangées côte à côte perpendiculairement à la rive, ne laissant entre elles qu'un étroit chenal. Là, un bac permet, moyennant quelques sapèques, de passer d'un bord à l'autre à travers l'agitation du canal.

Non loin de là nous débouchons dans le fameux et célèbre *Grand Canal Impérial*. Comme on sait, ce canal, appelé par les chinois 運河 *yun-'hó*, rivière de transport, ou 運糧河 *yun-léang hó* rivière pour le transport des grains (tribut en nature qui doit être envoyé annuellement à Péking), part de Hang-tchéou, capitale du Tché-kiang, remonte vers le nord, longe les murs de Sou-tchéou, traverse le Yang-tse-kiang à Tchen-kiang, puis le Houang-'hó ou Fleuve Jaune et aboutit au Peï-hó à Tientsin. Ce canal a pu être autrefois d'une grande utilité, mais le triste état dans lequel il est maintenant laisse supposer qu'il ne sert plus à grand'chose: mal entretenu, il s'est ensablé en divers endroits; les digues s'effritent peu à peu et ne sont plus réparées; dans certaines parties de son cours, notamment dans le Chantoung, le canal n'est plus navigable. Les écluses sont abandonnées à elles-mêmes de sorte que, par les temps de sécheresse, il n'y a presque plus d'eau dans le canal, et qu'au contraire, par les temps de pluie, l'eau regorge et se répand dans les campagnes. Pour remettre le *yun-'hó* en état de navigabilité, il faudrait que son lit fut dragué en mains endroits, que les digues fussent réparées, qu'un système d'écluses bien compris fut organisé, et que des déversoirs et des réservoirs fussent construits. Un ingénieur anglais, M. G. J. Morrison, qui a parcouru presque tout le canal, a évalué la dépense nécessaire à cinq millions de taels environ c'est à-dire à près de trente cinq millions de francs, somme qu'à son dire on pourrait faire rentrer aisément en exigeant des droits de chaque bateau au passage de chaque écluse. “ L'avantage d'avoir un bon canal

serait si grand que les bateliers auraient les moyens de les acquitter et pourraient encore transporter des marchandises à plus bas prix qu'à présent et réaliseraient de plus grands bénéfices. Le propriétaire de la cargaison y gagnerait, les bateliers y gagneraient, le gouvernement y gagnerait, ce serait un travail d'un bon rapport et le gouvernement qui l'effectuerait aurait droit aux remerciemens des générations présentes et futures." Dans l'état actuel des choses, on peut affirmer que le Canal Impérial est entièrement hors de service (unserviceable).

Ce canal, qui n'a été primitivement construit que pour envoyer le tribut en nature annuel (riz) à Péking, ne sert déjà presque plus à cet usage: il y a beau jour que l'on a songé à y renoncer et à prendre la voie de mer. On prit cette voie pour la première fois sous le règne du dernier empereur de la dynastie Mongole, en l'an 1353 de notre ère: les bateaux étaient petits alors, chacun ne pouvait porter qu'une centaine de piculs; ils naviguaient le long de la côte. Au commencement de la dynastie des Ming, on employa à la fois les deux voies, mais le canal ayant été réparé en 1415 on s'en servit de nouveau. Ce ne fut que plus tard, sous Young-tcheng (1723-1736) et Kia-ts'ing (1796-1820) que divers mémoires furent présentés au trône demandant la permission d'envoyer une partie des grains par mer: mais on objecta que la construction de navires pour cet usage et l'établissement de surveillants coûteraient trop cher. Cependant, le canal s'étant trouvé de nouveau impraticable en 1825, on reprit la voie de mer: sur l'ordre de l'empereur, le gouverneur du Kiangsou s'établit à Changhaï même pour surveiller l'opération et se fit assister par le Taotaï de cette ville. Le riz était chargé sur des bateaux appartenant à des particuliers mais frétés par le gouvernement chinois. Dans l'hiver de cette année et au printemps de l'année suivante, 1562 jonques transportèrent 1,429,000 piculs de riz grossier (coarse rice), et 81,000 piculs de riz fin (fine rice). Peu après on se servit de nouveau de la voie canalisée, mais pas pour longtemps, car le Fleuve Jaune ayant changé de lit en 1847 on dut revenir à la voie de mer pour transporter les

riz des provinces du Kiang-sou et du Tché-kiang. Les rebelles dévastant les provinces centrales de l'empire, on ne put de longtemps se servir du canal. Lorsque fut créé sous les auspices du célèbre vice-roi du Tché-li, Li Houng-tchang, il y a quelques années, la Grande Compagnie chinoise de navigation à vapeur, il fut décidé que la Compagnie aurait le monopole du transport du riz : depuis lors tout le riz des provinces méridionales est amené à Tientsin par les vapeurs indigènes.

Dans la partie du Canal Impérial que nous traversons, nous faisons la rencontre d'un grand nombre de jonques destinées à transporter le riz du Tché-kiang et du Kiangsou à Changhaï. Ces bateaux sont réquisitionnés d'ordinaire par le surintendant du riz (lequel a le rang de *taô-tai* ou intendant de cercle). Récemment, des rixes qui auraient pu devenir sanglantes, si l'on n'eût coupé le mal dans sa racine, s'étaient élevées entre les propriétaires de ces jonques : en effet la plupart sont chrétiens de père en fils, et, comme il est d'usage qu'une retenue de douze sapèques (environ dix centimes) par *pieul* soit faite sur le montant du frêt pour contribuer à l'édification ou à l'entretien des pagodes (en chinois cette contribution est appelée 神福 *chen-fou*, Félicité des Génies), les chrétiens avaient protesté contre cet impôt comme étant incompatible avec les principes de leur religion. Cela fit toute une affaire dont les autorités locales et consulaires furent saisies : gain de cause resta à ces dernières qui demandèrent et obtinrent l'exemption de cette contribution pour les chrétiens en s'appuyant sur une circulaire explicite du Prince Koung de 1862.¹ De là, jalousie

1. Cette circulaire ou proclamation (諭單 *yu-tan*) du Prince Koung, est datée du mois de janvier de la première année 同治 T'oung-tche (février 1862). Après avoir dit que l'Empereur regarde du même oeil et avec la même bonté (一視同仁) les chrétiens et les non-chrétiens, le prince ajoute : " La religion catholique a pour principe d'exhorter les hommes au bien : sa base est la même que celle des doctrines confucéennes, bouddhiques ou taoïstes ; aussi à l'époque de K'ang-Hi il fut permis de la pratiquer. Cependant, les catholiques ne peuvent prétexter leur religion pour demander à être exemptés des impôts légitimes, et s'il y a des corvées (差徭) ou des contributions utiles au bien public, ils doivent y contribuer absolument com-

des propriétaires non chrétiens qui, furieux d'être soumis seuls à la retenue, voulurent faire un mauvais parti à leurs camarades mieux partagés. Il fallut publier une proclamation sévère pour les engager à se tenir tranquilles et à ne pas causer de désordres. Pour jouir de la même exemption ils auraient pu faire comme leurs compatriotes qui faisaient partie en 1862 du corps franco-chinois : les soldats chrétiens ayant une haute paye de neuf piastres par mois (45 francs), tandis que les non chrétiens n'en avaient que six (30 francs), nombre de ces derniers s'empressèrent d'embrasser la religion catholique pour être mieux payés.

Nous laissons bientôt le Grand Canal pour en prendre un plus petit qui se dirige vers les montagnes dont les flancs et les cimes découpent à l'ouest l'horizon. Après une navigation de quelques lis, nous arrivons à un gros bourg en croix sur deux canaux : c'est 'Hou Kiéou, la Colline du Tigre; un joli pont de trois arches en relie deux tronçons séparés par un canal assez large. Notre barque à peine amarrée au rivage, nous

me ceux qui ne pratiquent pas cette religion : mais *quant aux contributions, aux processions, aux représentations théâtrales, aux réunions, aux encensements et autres choses semblables, comme elles ne concernent nullement les catholiques, il est défendu à jamais de forcer ceux-ci à y contribuer.* (且天主教原以勸人行善爲本。其大旨與儒釋道同。是以康熙年間曾經准行。然伊等亦不能因係教民遂欲倖免各項公費。如有差徭及一切有益等項亦應照不習教者一律應差攤派。惟迎神演戲賽燒會香等事與伊等無涉永遠不得勒攤勒派)。Un décret impérial postérieur à ce *yu-tan* et inséré dans la gazette de Péking du 7e jour de la 3e lune de la 1re année T'oung-tche (Avril 1862) a affirmé un mémoire du Prince Koung sur la matière; il y est dit : "que ces contributions pour les processions, les représentations, etc. ne sont pas comparables aux impôts légitimes et qu'on ne peut forcer les catholiques à les acquitter contre leur gré 况祈神賽會等事並非正項差徭可以該教民既不願攤派自未便過爲勉強." Qu'en conséquence "à part les impôts et corvées légitimes, les catholiques seront dispensés de contribuer à toutes souscriptions pour les processions, théâtres, réunions, etc., *s'ils ne veulent pas* les payer comme le font ceux qui ne pratiquent pas la religion, 除正項差徭外其餘祈神演戲賽會等費該教民既不願與不習教者一律同出即可免其攤派."

sautons à terre et parcourons la grande rue qui le longe.

Il paraît que le bourg de 'Hou Kiéou a jadis été renommé (peut-être l'est-il même encore) pour la piété filiale de ses habitans et la chasteté de leurs femmes : on ne saurait s'imaginer le grand nombre de 節孝坊 *tsié-hiaô-fang* ou monumens élevés à la mémoire de gens illustres par leurs vertus. Bientôt, à travers une foule de marchands de poissons, de sucreries, de thé, de riz, nous apercevons la pagode qui coiffe la colline du tigre. Au dessus du premier portique de l'enceinte aujourd'hui à bas on lit : 虎阜禪寺 '*Hou fou tchan-sseu*, Temple de Hou Kiéou. Un chemin dallé et moussu, bordé de terrains incultes jonchés de ruines calcinées par l'incendie conduit au deuxième portique où deux terribles figures de diables en bois peint roulant de grands yeux, semblent monter encore la garde et veiller sur le sanctuaire. Le chemin dallé monte peu à peu. A notre gauche, perché sur un roc noirci, s'élève un petit temple : c'est le Temple de la Kouan-yn de pierre¹ ; il s'y trouve en effet une statue écornée de cette déesse, l'Avalokitesvara indienne. Au pied s'étend une nappe rocheuse, unie, glissante, à l'extrémité de laquelle se trouve un autel dédié à deux sages illustres dont l'histoire ne nous a malheureusement pas transmis le nom : sur un rocher, à gauche, on voit gravés les quatre caractères : 虎丘劍池 *Hou Kiéou kienn tch'é*, l'Etang du poignard de la Colline du Tigre. Tout à côté, la colline, qui surgit abrupte, est fendue d'une crevasse rocheuse, aux parois angulaires, et dont les bords sont reliés au dessus de notre tête par un joli pont hardiment jeté. Une source vive sourd au pied et son eau limpide forme un petit lac au travers duquel s'aperçoit la roche polie comme un miroir.

A cette appellation *l'Etang du poignard* se rattachent plusieurs faits historiques racontés tout au long dans les Annales de la province. Le lecteur nous permettra sans doute de les citer ici en substance.²

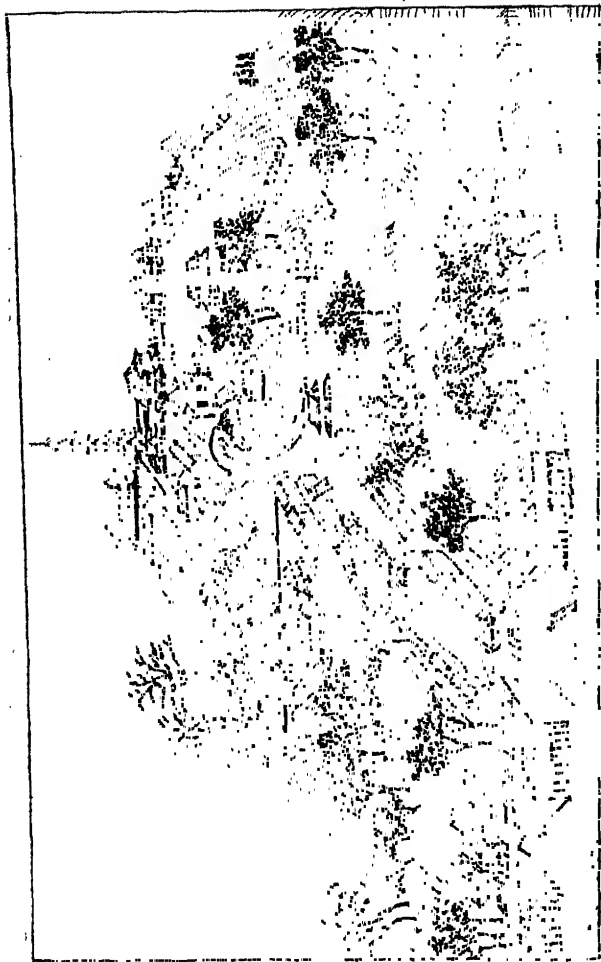
1. 石觀音殿 *Che Kouan-yn tien*.

2. Voir le *Sou-tchéou fou tche*, mais surtout le 史記 *Che-ki* de Sseu-mâ Ts'ien, livre 85, Biographie de Tchouan Tchou (列傳二十六).

Au VI^e siècle avant notre ère vivait un certain roi de l'Etat de Vou (la province actuelle du Kiang sou), nommé 僚 Léaô, qui était parvenu au trône au détriment de son frère aîné, 公子光 Koung Tseu-kouang. Ce dernier, excité par un de ses familiers, 專諸 Tchouan Tchou, résolut de se venger: un jour, il cacha des hommes armés dans une chambre obscure, puis invita le roi Léaô à venir assister à un festin. Léaô arriva chez son frère avec une suite nombreuse et bien armée qui fit la haie sur son passage et se rangea autour de la salle du festin. Au milieu du repas, Kouang se plaignit de souffrir à un pied et se retira en boitant. Il envoya alors Tchouan Tchou porter au roi un poisson recherché dans le ventre duquel était caché un poignard. Arrivé devant son souverain, Tchouan Tchou ouvrit tout à coup le poisson, saisit le poignard et en frappa Léaô: celui-ci tomba expirant. Tous les assistants fondirent immédiatement le sabre en main sur le meurtrier et le mirent en pièces: le tumulte était à son comble, lorsque Kouang sortit de sa cachette avec ses gens, attaqua les partisans de Léaô, les défit et les passa tous au fil de l'épée. Ainsi maître du trône, Kouang se proclama lui-même roi sous le nom de Hô-lu.¹

Hô-lu régna de l'an 514 à l'an 496 avant notre ère: ce fut lui qui, ainsi que nous l'avons dit plus haut, bâtit en 484 la

¹. 酒既酣公子光詳爲足疾入窟室中。使專諸置匕首魚炙之腹中而進之。既至王前專諸擘魚因以匕首刺王僚。王僚立死。左右亦殺專諸。王人擾亂。公子光出其伏甲以攻王僚之徒盡滅之。遂自立爲王。是爲闔閭。(Che-ki, livre 86, biographie de Tchouan Tchou). Il est nécessaire de faire quelques observations sur ce passage. 詳 vulgò *siang* est lu ici *yang* et signifie *simuler, faire semblant*; 爲 serait ici pour 僞, faussement. 匕首 signifie *poignard*. A consulter sur cette époque les ouvrages suivans: 左傳 Tsô-tchouan, de Tsô Kiéou-ming; 戰國策 Tchan-kouô-ts'ò, stratagèmes des Etats belligérans; 國語 Kouô-yu, Discours des royaumes. (C'est là d'ailleurs que Sseu-mâ Ts'ien a puisé une grand partie des renseignemens qu'il a mis en œuvre dans son Che-ki).



LE TEMPLE DE LA COLLINE DU TIGRE AVANT LA REBELLION

D'après un dessin chinois.

ville de Sou-tchéou et en fit la capitale de son royaume. Après sa mort "on versa dans son cadavre de l'argent liquide (mercure)" c'est-à-dire on l'embauma, puis on plaça le cercueil dans trois sarcophages en cuivre: le tout fut déposé à quelque distance de la porte de l'ouest de Sou-tchéou, et cent mille hommes, pris dans cette ville, furent employés à couvrir le tombeau de terre qu'ils allèrent prendre sur les bords du Grand Lac. On éleva ainsi une sorte de colline. Trois jours après l'inhumation, un tigre blanc étant venu s'asseoir au sommet de ce monticule, on donna à cette élévation le nom de *Colline du Tigre*. Dans la suite on bâtit à mi-côte un petit temple où fut déposé le poignard qui avait servi à tuer le roi Léaô.

Lorsque, bien des années plus tard, le célèbre Tsin ché-houang, celui-là même qui ordonna de brûler tous les anciens livres et de mettre à mort les plus doctes lettrés de ses Etats, arriva à Hou-kiéou pendant un voyage qu'il faisait dans les provinces méridionales de son empire, il demanda à voir ce fameux poignard: comme à ce moment, rapporte l'histoire, le tigre était encore assis au sommet de la colline, l'empereur lança cette arme contre lui mais ne l'atteignit pas. Le poignard alla frapper un rocher, l'effleura et disparut dans le sol. Le tigre, effrayé, se sauva dans la direction de l'ouest et cessa d'être visible. Tsin ché-houang fit faire des fouilles là où il croyait le poignard enseveli: on ne le retrouva pas. On creusa profondément jusqu'à ce qu'on eut mis à jour une source dont l'eau filtrait jadis à travers les rocs de la colline et qui, depuis ce jour, s'épancha dans un bassin. On appela cet endroit l'Etang du Poignard.¹

Tsin ché-houang fit également faire des fouilles pour rechercher le cercueil même de Hô-lu, mais on ne parvint pas à le découvrir.

La nappe rocheuse qui s'étend devant l'étang, est appelée *la roche des mille*, (千人石 ts'ien-jen-ché) parceque mille

1. Sou-tchéou fou-tche.

personnes peuvent s'y tenir assises. Tout autour se trouvent debout plusieurs rochers abruptes "*les rochers qui acquiescent,*" 點頭石 (*tien-t'eoù-ché*). On raconte à ce sujet la légende suivante:

"Au V^e siècle de notre ère, un certain bonze nommé Tchou Taô, originaire de la province du Tché-li, se rendit à Tch'ang-an (alors capitale de l'empire, la Si-an-fou de nos jours) pour étudier sous le célèbre bonze *Che mi lô*. Peu après son arrivée, on apporta de l'Inde les six livres du Nié-pan-king (涅槃經 *Nirvâna Soutra*): il y était dit "Tous les hommes ont de bons sentimens (ceux de Fô ou du Bouddha) sauf les hommes vicieux (*tch'an-ti*)."
Tchou Taô critiqua cette doctrine et affirma que tous les hommes, même les vicieux, avaient naturellement de bons sentimens. Là dessus on cria à l'hérésie, on chassa Tchou Taô, on le honnit de partout. Le bonze, quittant la capitale, fit le serment suivant: "Que la lèpre couvre mon corps si la doctrine que je soutiens n'est pas d'accord avec l'esprit des King bouddhiques (經 = *Soutra*); qu'au contraire ma vie soit courte si elle y est conforme!" En disant ces mots il secoua la poussière de ses habits et partit. Il voyagea dans diverses provinces: arrivé dans celle du Kiang-sou, la Colline du Tigre lui plut; il s'y arrêta et ayant rassemblé autour de lui un certain nombre de rochers qui lui formèrent comme un cercle d'auditeurs, il leur expliqua le Nié-pan-king: quand il en fut à l'endroit qu'il critiquait, il exposa sa propre doctrine et termina en disant: "Est-ce que ma pensée est conforme à celle du Bouddha?" A ces paroles, toutes les pierres s'inclinèrent en signe d'assentiment. Quelque temps après, on reçut de l'Inde la grande édition du Nié-pan-king: la doctrine soutenue contre tous par Tchou Taô y était tout au long. Ce livre à la main, Tchou Taô parcourut alors l'empire. Se trouvant à Lou-chan en l'an 435, il venait de terminer son explication du Nirvâna, quand tout-à-coup son chasse-mouches lui tomba des mains, et lui-même, s'appuyant sur la petite table où se trouvait sa tasse de thé, resta sans

mouvement: il était mort.”¹

A mi-côte était jadis la tombe d'une beauté de Sou-tchéou qui avait refusé de se remarier après la mort de son mari et dont les poètes ne cessèrent pendant longtemps de vanter les charmes et la vertu: c'était le 貞娘墓 *Tchen-niang-mou*, Tombeau de la Chaste Epouse.² Une vieille description de Hou-kiéou à l'époque de la dynastie des T'ang rapporte que les voyageurs venaient faire un pèlérinage à ce tombeau et y inscrivaient quelques vers en l'honneur de la défunte. Mais un beau jour, un poète de ce temps composa une pièce de vers si admirable que nul n'osa désormais plus rimer sur le même sujet.

De l'esplanade un bel et large escalier conduit au temple actuel: ainsi que de coutume, il s'y trouve plusieurs statues dorées du Bouddha devant lesquelles brûlent des chandelles

1. Extrait du 高僧傳 *Kaô-seng-tchouan*, Biographies des Bonzes célèbres.

2. Il faut dire que, tout en ayant refusé de se marier en souvenir de son mari, cette beauté devint une “irrégulière” et, grâce à ses chans et à sa danse, fut classée parmi les plus renommées courtisanes de Sou-tchéou. Comme pendant sa vie elle avait plusieurs fois manifesté le désir d'être enterrée à 'Hou-Kiéou où elle avait fait tant de parties joyeuses, la jeunesse dorée de Sou-tchéou promit de se conformer à sa volonté, et en effet, quand elle mourut, elle fut inhumée devant le temple. Un poète de la dynastie des T'ang qui visita 'Hou-Kiéou rapporte que le tombeau était couvert d'herbe et de fleurs et que le soir, quand une légère brise soufflait et qu'une fine pluie tombait en forme de rosée, on entendait le “bruit des instrumens et le son des chansons.” Ce tombeau a exercé la verve de nombreux poètes: on nous permettra de citer ici les jolis vers que 白樂天 *Pô Lô-t'ien*, un des plus fameux poètes de l'époque des T'ang et aussi amoureux de la dive bouteille que son illustre contemporain 李太白 *Li T'ai-pô*, a composés à ce sujet:

Le tombeau de la Chaste Epouse est situé sur la route de 'Hou-Kiéou:

Je n'ai pas vu la Chaste Epouse se regarder dans le miroir,

Je vois seulement son tombeau couvert d'herbes.

De même que les fleurs du pêcher et du prunier sont détruites par le givre,
et les nénuphars sont rompus par le vent,

De même la Chaste Epouse est morte encore à la fleur de l'âge.

Longtemps ne peuvent durer une peau douce et une main blanche:

En ce monde rien n'est si difficile que de tâcher de conserver quelque-
chose si précieux (i. e. une belle femme):

Car rien ne s'altère aussi facilement et aussi rapidement:

Comme les fleurs dans les pays du nord et la neige dans ceux du sud.

parfumées. Laissant cet édifice à droite nous gravissons la dernière éminence: c'est là, au milieu de décombres et de ruines, que s'élève la pagode de Hou-kiéou. Elle est aujourd'hui dans un triste état: écornée, trouée par des projectiles, vestiges de la guerre civile, elle penche dangereusement d'un côté, comme la célèbre tour de Bologne. Les petits toits à clochettes qui devraient exister à chaque étage sont détruits, les parois s'effritent lentement et de longues herbes poussent dans les fentes: une légion de corbeaux habite le sommet.

Nous trouvons là trois bonzes, gardiens et habitans de la tour: en les saluant nous disons à la chinoise:

—Ta-ssé-fou, nin fâ-haô? Grand maître, quel est votre nom en religion?

Une fois entrés dans les ordres les bonzes n'ont plus de *sing*, de nom patronymique; ils prennent un surnom sous lequel ils sont dès lors connus: ayant quitté totalement ce monde, ayant renoncé à ses pompes, ils ne doivent plus avoir rien de commun avec lui. Ce surnom ou *fâ-haô* a son équivalent chez nous: on prend un nom de saint quand on entre en religion.

Ces pauvres bonzes nous reçoivent avec amabilité et politesse: ils nous donnent le nom de *yang-sié-seng*, Monsieur l'européen; ils nous invitent à nous asseoir, à prendre du thé. Nos gants les intriguent fort: ils croient d'abord que c'est notre peau qui a cette couleur mais nous les détrompons vite, à leur ahurissement, en les ôtant; notre canne, dont ils ignorent l'usage, est prise par eux pour une longue pipe: ces bonzes sont logés au rez-de-chaussée de la pagode, dans des niches autrefois occupées par des statues bouddhiques: leur mobilier se compose d'une mauvaise natte étendue sur la pierre nue, d'un escabeau boiteux, d'un brasero en bronze rouillé, de l'indispensable pipe-à-eau et de la théière de fer-blanc. Ils subviennent à leur existence en allant quêter dans les bourgs et villages voisins.

Nous aurions désiré monter jusqu'au sommet de la pagode

pour contempler le panorama des environs de Sou-tchéou, mais malheureusement l'escalier vermoulu et branlant s'arrête au premier étage et est obstrué par des décombres : au dessus logent des légions de corbeaux qui, au moindre bruit, sortent par les fenêtres déchiquetées et décrivent pendant longtemps de longs cercles noirs autour du sommet.

Mille oiseaux effrayans, mille corbeaux funèbres,
de ces murs désertés habitent les ténèbres.

Au moment de prendre congé de ces déguenillés anachorètes, l'un d'entre eux nous présente un livre à couverture rouge en nous priant de vouloir bien donner quelques sapèques pour la reconstruction du temple, et d'y inscrire notre nom à côté de ceux qui en ornent les pages. Nous sommes obligés de délier les cordons de notre bourse, bien certains cependant que notre don servira, non pas à l'édification d'un nouveau temple, pas plus peut-être qu'aux frais du culte, mais plutôt à l'entretien des bonzes même.

L'un d'eux, vieillard à face ridée et à bonne humeur, nous reconduit à travers les ruines. Il nous raconte que, jadis, les côteaui aujourd'hui si désolés étaient embellis de magnifiques temples et de gracieux pavillons où la jeunesse de Sou-tchéou venait de temps à autre festoyer en partie de plaisir et composer des poésies à l'ombre des saules. "Il y avait, nous dit-il, le *Pavillon des fleurs de prunier*, le *Pavillon de la vaste plaine* et le célèbre *Temple de la colline nuageuse* qui fut visité par l'empereur K'ien-loung et inspira à ce souverain nombre de pièces de poésie. C'est là que l'on conservait un trépied en bronze de la dynastie des Tchéou (IX^e siècle avant notre ère) : transmis de famille en famille, et de générations en générations, un bonze l'avait acheté vers la fin du XVIII^e siècle et en avait fait don au temple. On l'y gardait précieusement dans une salle dont il ne sortait jamais. Pour le rendre intransportable, on l'avait rempli de cendres et de poussière. Malheureusement quand les impériaux détruisirent le temple dont les rebelles avaient fait une citadelle, il disparut."

En ce moment le bonze nous montre un canon en bronze rouillé, sans affût, gisant à terre.

—Tenez, dit-il, voilà encore un des canons dont les Hommes à long cheveux avaient armé la Colline du Tigre. Figurez-vous que lors de la prise de Sou-tchéou par les impériaux et de la dispersion des rebelles dans les environs du Grand Lac, un certain nombre de ces derniers, commandés par un de leurs plus braves officiers, le général Mâ, poursuivis de près par les troupes du général impérial Tch'eng, se réfugièrent dans le bourg de Hou-kiéou et dans les temples et édifices qui occupaient à cette époque toute la colline. Sous la direction active de Mâ, les rebelles fortifièrent en un instant le bourg et la colline, y placèrent quelques pièces de canon qu'ils avaient pu entraîner dans leur déroute, et Hou-kiéou, grâce à sa situation naturelle, devint une redoute réellement formidable. Le général Mâ attendit les impériaux de pied ferme : il avait sous ses ordres une femme digne des temps antiques qui, célèbre par sa beauté autant que par sa cruauté et sa sauvage énergie, conduisait au combat une troupe de Cantonnais et de Fokiennois.¹ Dès leur arrivée, les impériaux s'emparèrent du bourg mollement défendu, mais, quand ils arrivèrent au pied de la colline, ils furent accueillis par une si chaude fusillade qu'ils reculèrent en désordre; ils cernèrent alors la redoute, puis, mettant en batterie quelques canons, démolirent les murs des temples : la brèche faite, ils se lancèrent à l'assaut, mais, à la place d'une muraille renversée ils trouvèrent un mur humain; les rebelles, armés de fusils européens, de lances, de gaffes, brandissant des étendards de diverses couleurs, les attendaient de pied ferme : ce fut une mêlée effroyable. Le ciel était obscurci par la fumée de la poudre, et l'air était rempli du bruit de la

1. L'histoire de la rébellion mentionne plusieurs amazones de ce genre : la fille de Tchéou Li-tch'oun, l'un des chefs de l'insurrection locale de Chang-hai en 1854, conduisait un bataillon contre les Impériaux qui assiégeaient la ville; plusieurs autres se distinguèrent de même lors du siège de Nanking par les Impériaux en 1864. Ce furent ces femmes, vraies furies, qui se battirent avec le plus d'acharnement et de cruauté.

fusillade et des cris sauvages que poussaient les deux partis. Deux fois les impériaux tentèrent de passer, deux fois ils furent repoussés. Le général Mâ, armé, d'une main, d'un éventail, et de l'autre, de son parasol, encore que le chaleur ne fut plus très forte à cette époque de l'année, se portait sur les points les plus menacés, donnait des ordres avec calme, et encourageait les siens du geste et de la voix au milieu d'une grêle de balles qui trouait son ombrelle et semait la mort à ses côtés. Après le second assaut, il y eut plusieurs heures de répit pendant lesquelles les canons impériaux eurent la parole : ceux-ci tonnèrent avec rage, achevèrent de détruire les temples et constructions en y mettant le feu. Ce que voyant, Tch'eng donna l'ordre de tenter un nouvel assaut; les rebelles, épuisés par leur première défense, décimés, sur le point de manquer de munitions, ne purent résister à cette nouvelle attaque. Les impériaux, furieux d'une si longue résistance, pénétrèrent dans les temples et passèrent au fil de l'épée tous ceux qu'ils prirent : à la faveur de la nuit qui survint, pendant le carnage, quelques rebelles purent s'échapper, mais, reconnus par les paysans à cause de la longue chevelure qu'ils portaient comme signe de ralliement, ils furent écharpés par eux dans les campagnes. Le général Mâ périt en combattant et quelques jours plus tard on trouva son cadavre, percé de coups et de balles, presque défiguré, au pied même de la pagode.

“ Nous autres, pauvres bonzes, nous nous étions enfuis dès l'arrivée des rebelles et étions allés nous cacher dans l'un des temples du bourg qui, n'ayant pas fait de résistance, avait été épargné. Le lendemain de la prise de Hou-kiéou nous sortîmes de bonne heure pour voir ce qui restait de notre temple. Le soleil venait de se lever sur le champ de bataille de la veille : on apercevait à travers le brouillard, lent à se dissiper, les retranchemens couverts de cadavres amoncelés; les murailles des temples étaient presque toutes détruites; les temples eux-mêmes, abattus par la mitraille, gisaient en ruine et les toitures à demi-carbonisées fumaient encore; la pagode, elle, était encore debout, mais hachée et criblée de projectiles : elle sem-

blait contempler d'un air morne et triste cette scène de désolation. La colline était jonchée de cadavres mutilés ou à demi-dévorerés par les flammes: les rebelles, sauvages dans leur héroïsme, s'étaient bravement fait tuer à leur poste par les impériaux et même par leurs propres canons: plusieurs de ceux-ci, en effet, de mauvaise qualité ou trop chargés, avaient éclaté et, au lieu de répandre la mort parmi l'ennemi, l'avaient semée alentour, dans les propres rangs des Hommes à longs cheveux. Il ne restait plus des courageux défenseurs de Hou-kiéou qu'un amas confus de morts, de blessés et d'agonisants, et d'un beau lieu de plaisance, qu'un monceau indescriptible de ruines fumantes

En revenant à bord nous visitons le temple élevé à la mémoire d'un haut fonctionnaire de la dynastie des Ming 張玉筍 Tchang Yu-sseu (ou 張公 Tchang Koung), qui, nous dit l'inscription placée au sommet de l'arc-de-triomphe debout sur le bord du chemin, a couvert de bienfaits les populations de la province (南東被澤). Ce temple se compose de plusieurs constructions assez jolies et bien entretenues; un des kiosques porte le nom de 萊樓 *fou-léou*, Pavillon des plantains: au second étage, appendue à la muraille, on lit toute la biographie de Tchang.

Après un déjeuner consistant surtout en excellens petits goujons péchés dans le canal de Hou-kiéou, nous levons l'ancre: nous prenons un canal qui se dirige vers le sud-est et qui, à peu de distance de là, aboutit à un carrefour de "ces chemins qui marchent et qui portent où l'on veut aller," comme Pascal appelle les rivières. Nous entrons dans la rivière de gauche et, après quelques lis de navigation, arrêtons notre maison flottante près du village de Ts'aô-meun. Sur la rive gauche se trouve un petit temple appelé 西園戒幢寺 *Si-yuan kie-toung sseu*, assez peu intéressant par lui-même du reste: rien de particulier à voir, sinon une grand mare, où une belle tortue d'un mètre de circonférence prend ses ébats. Plus loin, s'étend le 留園 *Léou-yuan*, jardin Léou, où l'on entre, comme

toujours, moyennant quelques sapèques. C'est un des plus beaux jardins que l'on puisse voir dans cette partie de la province: kiosques, pavillons sur rochers, allées couvertes, galeries aux mille détours, labyrinthes étroits, roches fantastiques, lacs à nénuphars, rien ne manque. Il y a de plus un groupe d'arbres de fort belle taille. Les salons des pavillons sont richement meublés: canapés laqués, chaises incrustées de plaques de marbre de Tâ-li-fou, tables de marbre blanc, pancartes à beaux caractères, pendules venues de Paris en passant par Changhaï, etc. un joli kiosque domine tout le jardin: il porte l'inscription suivante:

聞木樨香軒

“ Cabinet où l'on respire le parfum de l'*olea fragrans* à fleurs rouges.”

Dans une cage, à l'entrée, deux magnifiques paons au brillant plumage, venus de l'Annam.

Nous recommandons ce jardin, généralement peu connu, aux excursionnistes dans cette partie de la province du Kiang-sou.

Revenus à bord, nous tournons le dos à Ts'aô-meun, continuons le canal jusqu'à un village dont le nom nous échappe et prenons à gauche. Sur notre chemin, les ponts, coupés par les rebelles, n'ont pas été reconstruits, et des amas de pierres, gisant de chaque côté du cours d'eau, en indique l'ancien emplacement. Cette route est assez fréquentée: on y rencontre de nombreux trains de bois se dirigeant sur Sou-tchéou, ainsi que des barques de plaisance, ornées de petits rubans rouges et de lanternes de papier, pleines de joyeux lettrés jouant aux échecs ou à la mourre pour égayer la lenteur du voyage, qui se dirigent vers les montagnes et le Grand Lac.

Vers les deux heures nous entrons dans une jolie rivière, ombragée par deux rangées d'arbres touffus et dont les branches s'unissent en arcades au dessus de l'eau. Nous nous ancrons bientôt au pied de trois ou quatre chaumières et non loin d'un vieux pont rompu dont les tronçons disparaissent aujourd'hui sous la mousse et des plantes grimpantes. Débarquant aussitôt nous suivons le chemin rocailleux qui se

déroule à travers champs, comme un reptile, tout en s'allongeant vers les montagnes. Au pied même de la chaîne, le chemin fait place à un escalier dont les marches ont bien quatre mètres de long sur trois de large: il est encaissé entre deux versans couverts de pins et de bambous. Au sommet de la montagne, que les chinois dénomment 觀音山 *Kouan-yn-chan* (*Koué-yn-sai*), Montagne de la Déesse Kouan-yn (*Avalokiteçvara*) le chemin dallé passe sous une sorte de pont en rocs équarris qui relie les hauteurs de droite à celle de gauche et forme un passage voûté de quelques mètres; lorsqu'on sort de ce passage, la vue s'étend sur une grande vallée: devant soi, le chemin descend en pente rapide; à gauche, des hauteurs abruptes; à droite une grande masse rocheuse dont les rocs pointus semblent, selon l'expresson chinoise "vouloir percer le ciel": à son flanc on aperçoit suspendu, à travers de beaux et grands arbres qui en cachent une partie, un joli temple boudhique entouré de verdure. Le soleil, se faufilant par des échappées de branchages, miroite sur les tuiles vernissées du toit; ses rayons éclairent lumineusement les chimères dorées et les dragons fantastiques des corniches et des cheneaux. Les rochers noirs, aux pointes acérées, épars sur les flancs et le sommet de la montagne, séparés ici et là par des arbustes ou des îlots de verdure, font le plus bizarre effet: on dirait les arbres d'une forêt pétrifiée.

Le paysage est vraiment joli et pittoresque; un artiste pourrait faire là un tableau des plus gracieux: la nature chinoise dans toute sa beauté. Mais les artistes ne viennent pas en Chine: les peintres de sujets orientaux parcourent toujours les chemins rebattus de l'Egypte, de la Syrie, de la Turquie, en quête de sujets nouveaux, et sont souvent réduits à revenir au tableau classique de ces pays d'Orient: un desert, un ciel bleu, un chameau, et un arabe accroupi. Que ne viennent-ils en Chine? ils trouveraient là des sujets de tableaux bien plus variés, bien plus originaux, et ayant en outre l'attrait de la nouveauté. Mais ce mot de *Chine* les effraye, et ceux qui n'ont jamais quitté leurs foyers croient qu'on ne revient pas du Cé-

leste Empire: ils ne savent pas qu'en quarante jours, sans fatigue, sans soucis, on est à Changhaï, et qu'en six mois un artiste pourrait faire la plus belle moisson de croquis, d'études, et de tableaux que l'imagination la plus active d'un futur Poussin ait pu jamais rêver! . . .

Cette montagne porte le nom de 天平山 *T'ien-p'ing-chan*, Montagne qui est au même niveau que le ciel: c'est l'une des plus célèbres de la province. Un poète de la Dynastie des Soung (XI^e siècle de notre ère) a dit:

Le royaume de Vou est entouré de nombreuses montagnes:
Il est impossible de les compter toutes:
parmi elles il en est une qui s'appelle *T'ien-p'ing-chan*,
c'est de toutes la plus grande et la plus élevée.

Le temple situé à mi-côte est appelé 白雲寺 *Pô-yun-sseu*, Temple des nuages blancs, mais on lui donne plus généralement celui de 天平寺 *t'ien-p'ing-sseu*, Temple de *t'ien-p'ing*.

Après avoir descendu rapidement la pente qui longe le mur d'enceinte du parc de *T'ien-p'ing-sseu*, nous arrivons devant une large brèche creusée dans le mur à peu de distance de la grande porte: par là nous entrons dans le parc. Abrité par de grands et beaux arbres, un grand étang à demi caché sous de larges feuilles de nénuphar précède l'entrée du temple: cet étang est divisé en deux bassins, pour ainsi dire, par une petite chaussée en pierres moussues qui décrit des contours gracieux en s'acheminant vers le temple. Sous les nénuphars, des armées de petits poissons argentés et dorés se jouent dans les minces rayons de soleil filtrant à travers les feuilles; quelques grenouilles émeraudes, réveillées de leur sommeil paresseux, sautent tout épeurées et vont se cacher au fond de l'eau; tout autour, dans le feuillage, des insectes bruissent avec force.

Le temple est précédé d'un perron auquel plusieurs degrés donnent accès: on trouve d'abord une salle ouverte appelée 高義園 *Kaô-y-yuan*, Jardin de la Haute justice, garnie de tables et de banc. C'est l'empereur K'ien-loung qui lui a donné ce nom lors de la visite qu'il fit en 1756 au *T'ien-p'ing-chan*. Un bonze vient à notre rencontre et nous prie fort poliment de nous asseoir à une table: pendant ce temps, un autre

apporte une tasse de thé et une pipe qu'il place devant nous, enfin un troisième vient nous tendre un grand plateau rond divisés en plusieurs compartimens dans chacun desquels s'élève, sur de petites assiettes, des pyramides de tranches de pommes, de poires, d'olives sucrées, de confitures sèches, de segmens d'orange, de gâteaux feuilletés, etc. Reposés de notre marche, un bonze va, à notre demande, ouvrir une porte au fond à gauche: elle donne accès aux autres constructions du temple. Le bonze, ayant reçu une enfilade de sapèques pour reconnaître ses bons offices, referme la porte derrière nous: nous gravissons un certain nombre de degrés et atteignons le vrai Temple des Nuages Blancs. Ce temple se compose de plusieurs pavillons reliés les uns aux autres par d'étroits couloirs à niches de Bouddhas: une odeur agréable, due aux bougies parfumées qui brûlent devant les autels, se fait sentir en ces lieux. Au centre, une source sourd entre les rochers; on lit gravé sur le roc:

吳中第一水

Le premier cours d'eau de la province du Kiang-sou.

Vis-à-vis, une petite salle ornée d'une statue du Bouddha aux côtés de laquelle pendent les deux inscriptions suivantes:

嶺上雲容原可悅 山中泉情自然清

L'aspect des nuages sur la montagne est agréable (à voir);
l'eau de la source de la montagne est naturellement limpide.

Ce temple des Nuages Blancs fut primitivement construit en 827 sous la dynastie des T'ang: les ancêtres du célèbre ministre d'Etat 范仲淹 Fan Tchoung-yen, de la dynastie des Soung, y étant enterrés, ce dernier obtint de l'empereur de l'appeler 功德寺 *Koung-tó-sseu*, Temple de la Vertu et du Mérite. Cet édifice fut détruit par un incendie vers la fin de la dynastie mongole, puis reconstruit dès les premières années du règne de Houng-vou, fondateur de la dynastie des Ming.

Les bonzes nous paraissent assez hospitaliers: ils n'ont pas l'air de s'étonner de voir des européens dans leur sanctuaire.

Ceux qui nous rencontrent s'inclinent l'air béat, les mains croisées sous leurs longues manches rabattues, et nous saluent d'une légère révérence. D'aucuns, accroupis dans des encoignures, près d'une statue dorée du Bouddha, marmotent des prières dont sans doute ils ignorent le sens et qu'ils répètent par habitude.

Delà, circulant entre les hauts rochers fantastiques, tout habillés de mousse, qui se dressent les uns à côté des autres, nous gravissons la montagne : le chemin est abrupte et la montée fatigante. Jadis le sommet était surmonté d'un élégant kiosque appelé 望湖台 *Ouang-'hou-t'ai*, Terrasse d'où l'on regarde le lac, mais il a disparu ; il n'en reste même plus de vestiges. De là on jouit d'une fort belle vue sur la campagne avoisinante : on est en quelque sorte récompensé de la peine que l'on s'est donnée.

A l'ouest on aperçoit le Grand Lac (太湖 *t'ai-'hou*) avec sa vaste étendue, ses îles parsemées comme autant de taches noires, et ses esquifs microscopiques qui viennent de faire voile d'une anse de la côte ou de l'une des îles. Autour du T'ien-p'ing-chan, de hautes collines dont notre batelier devenu cicerone nous donne les noms : à l'est, la montagne de la cage à poules ; au sud, la colline du boyau de mouton, etc. A nos pieds, s'étalant jusqu'au bas des hauteurs, la plaine chaudement éclairée par le soleil : quelques rares maisons ou cabanes émergent des champs ; ici et là, une petite agglomération de chaumières entourées de verdure, apparaissant comme des îlots au milieu d'un lac ; des canaux étincelans, semblables à de longs sillons d'argent aux méandres capricieux. A l'est s'aperçoivent distinctement les maisons, les murs et la haute pagode de Sou-tchéou, puis, plus loin et confusément, la ville de K'oun-chan dont la pagode, perchée sur sa colline solitaire, ressemble à une fine aiguille fichée solitairement dans une pelote.

Comme nous ne voulons pas revenir par le même chemin nous redescendons la montagne de l'autre côté, descente qui

n'est pas sans danger, car nos bottines clouées glissent sur les rochers gluans et sans l'aide de notre cicérone dont les souliers de paille se fixent mieux sur le roc, nous aurions roulé dans l'abîme béant. De roc en roc, d'arbuste en arbuste, nous arrivons à une petite route encaissée qui circule le long de la montagne. Quel ne dut pas être l'étonnement des braves bonzes du temple des Nuages Blancs en ne voyant pas les "diables étrangers" redescendre de leur côté! peut-être crurent-ils que le Bouddha leur avait ouvert son paradis?

Le chemin remonte à mi-côte de la montagne voisine, appelée, nous dit notre cicérone, le mont 支硎 *Tche-yng*. A chaque pas l'on rencontre des maisons en ruines dont les murs sont noircis par l'incendie. Ce sont les traces encore vives du passage des Hommes à longs cheveux. Des ruisseaux descendent en clapotant du sommet de la montagne et se précipitent vers la plaine en déchaussant quelques rocs sur leur passage ou en creusant leur lit à travers. Non loin de là est le 中峰古剎 *Tchoung-foung kou-tcha*, Ancien Temple du Pic du Milieu que la rébellion a presque entièrement détruit: à terre git la partie supérieure d'un superbe Bouddha de plâtre peint. A quelques pas on reconstruit un nouveau temple le 支硎古剎 *Tche-yng kou-tcha*, ancien temple de Tche-yng. A la porte, un débit de thé où sont attablés des campagnards qui viennent de ramasser des pommes de pin sous les arbres résineux des côteaux. Dans le sanctuaire se trouve une belle statue de la Déesse Kouan-yn, et un autel orné d'un bouddha audessus duquel on lit 靈山福地 *Ling-chan Fou-ti*, terre heureuse de la montagne intelligente. Au pied, un panier rond avec ces mots:

花香錢功德無量

Quand vous dépensez votre argent à faire brûler des parfums, les récompenses que vous méritez n'ont pas de limites.

Sur les colonnes on voit l'inscription suivante qui rappelle le "take care of pickpockets male and female" de Londres:

香客衣包物件各自照管

Que les fidèles veillent eux-mêmes à leurs paquets et objets.

Il y a partout des voleurs, mais, en Chine, le vol a été élevé à la hauteur d'une institution.

Plusieurs autres salles sont remplies de statues toutes neuves, ruisselantes de dorures et éclatantes de couleurs vives : dans l'une pontifie le fameux et terrible 閻羅王 Yen-lô-ouang (*Yâma râdja*), le Roi des Enfers. Devant, un kiosque mobile pouvant tourner sur pivot, à niches garnies de petits Bouddhas.

Quand nous sortons de ce temple il est déjà tard et le soleil rougit le sommet du T'ien-p'ing chan et du Tche-yng chan : à travers champs nous regagnons notre bateau où nous passons la nuit.

Le lendemain matin, à l'aube, un bruit de chaines secouées et de pas précipités nous réveille : c'est le branle-bas du départ. L'équipage leve l'ancre et largue les amarres. Bientôt notre bateau reprends sa route et glisse sur l'eau encore endormie. La brume du matin se dissipe peu à peu : sur la rive, des campagnardes arrivent en se dandinant sur leurs petits pieds, portant, qui du linge et des habits pour les laver dans la rivière, qui des sceaux et des paniers de riz, pour les râcler et les balayer au bord de l'eau. Des enfans à peine éveillés, les yeux encore bouffis de sommeil, apparaissent demi-nus aux portes des chaumières ; d'affreux chiens chinois au museau allongé, véritables chacals, aboyent contre nous et se répondent l'un à l'autre ; des buffles levent la tête pardessus les arbustes de la rive et reniflent en grognant sourdement, contre les étrangers qui troublent leur quiétude. De ce côté, la campagne est presque nue : des buissons, des arbustes ornent les rives. Au delà, des champs à perte de vue.

Après une heure et demie de navigation nous arrivons à 木瀆 *Mou-tô* (*Mô-dô*), grand entassement de maisons qui, n'étant pas encoint de murailles, porte le nom de 鎮 *tchen*, bourg, et n'a pas le droit d'avoir celui de 城 *tch'eng*, ville fortifiée. Audessus s'élèvent le Mô-dô san et sa haute pagode : rien de particulier à voir. Notre cicérone nous dit gravement dans le patois du pays :

—*M'sâ 'haô pé-siang*, il n'y a pas d'endroit bon pour aller se promener, il n'y a rien à voir.

Au delà du pont de Mô-dô on nous montre une tour rectangulaire crénelée, aujourd'hui abandonnée, mais autrefois citadelle de Mô-dô.

Laissant derrière lui le bourg de Mô-dô, notre bateau profite d'un vent favorable, cingle d'abord vers l'ouest puis prends un cours d'eau dirigé vers le nord : un heure environ après, il fait halte au village de Che-ni diaô baigné par la rivière.

A notre aspect, une foule d'indigènes, hommes et femmes, accourent en portant des chaises suspendues à deux longs bambous : ils viennent nous demander de leur faire l'honneur de prendre leurs engins pour nous laisser transporter jusqu'au sommet de la haute montagne que nous apercevons non loin de là.

Cette montagne est le célèbre 穹窿山 *K'ioung-loung-chan*, Montagne Céleste (tel est le sens des mots *K'ioung-loung*), renommée par son temple ancien et sa situation pittoresque. Refusant les services de nos villageois (car une excursion pédestre, encore que plus fatigante, est toujours bien plus intéressante), nous suivons une route dallée, large de près de trois mètres, décorée du nom de *Grande route de la Montagne Céleste*,¹ ainsi que nous l'apprend une inscription placée à l'entrée. Là où la route commence à monter se trouve un grand kiosque debout au milieu du chemin : un toit ordinaire sur quatre colonnes de granit. On y lit : 直上雲霄 *Tche-chang-yun-siaô*, on monte droit aux nuages, i.e. là on commence à gravir la montagne.

Ici, le chemin est fort pittoresque : de chaque côté, les versans de la montagne sont couverts de jolis bois de pins et de sapins qui embaument l'air d'un parfum résineux ; à leur ombre, des paysans s'occupent à la récolte de pommes de pins ; à gauche, à demi caché sous des bambous entrelacés et des mousses chevelues, un ruisseau coule à flots pressés sur le co-

1. 穹窿山 大路.

cher qu'il polit tout en s'épurant lui-même: il semble murmurer contre les obstacles qu'il rencontre sur son chemin et qui retarde sa marche précipitée. Sa vue nous rappelle deux vers du poëte allemand Haller: ¹

L'élément qui vivifie la nature et fertilise les campagnes,
S'offre de lui-même à l'homme et court à sa rencontre.

A mi-côte, on a élevé un petit reposoir: au dessus de la porte se lit la phrase bouddhique bien connue: 有求必應, Priez et l'on vous exaucera! Dans la niche du centre, une statue avec tablette: elle représente le Prince Céleste 劉 Léou: Ce génie tient d'une main un marteau et de l'autre un clou énorme qu'il va enfoncer; un terrible et hideux serpent s'enroule autour de son cou et touche le sol de sa queue.

De là, le chemin se dirige légèrement vers la gauche; à droite, en étages, sont les débris de plusieurs grands tombeaux: ce sont les tombes des anciens abbés (方丈 *Fang-tchang*) du temple de K'ioung-loung. Nous copions sur l'un d'eux l'inscription suivante:

穹窿第十四代方丈月山願公神基

Tombeau du vénérable Kou, en religion Yué-chan (Montagne de la Lune), supérieur, à la quatorzième génération, du monastère de K'ioung-loung.

Nous sommes arrivés devant le premier portique de l'enceinte du temple; il est surmonté d'un kiosque rectangulaire rempli de Bouddhas et orné de quatre caractères: 洞天勝境, Bel endroit semblable à un autre ciel. Ici, le chemin tourne à droite et conduit à la porte principale du temple; on y lit: 穹窿福地, Terre fortunée de K'ioung-loung.

Ce grand temple, dont la majeure partie, détruite par les rebelles, est encore en ruines, se compose d'une série de pavillons disposés en étages sur le versant de la montagne et reliés par des couloirs tortueux, véritables labyrinthes où, fort heureusement, les bonzes obligeans guident nos pas. Toutes les salles sont garnies de statues bouddhiques de diverses di-

1. Die Würtse der Natur, der Länder reichster Segen,
Beut selbst dem Volk sich an und strömet uns entgegen.

mensions. D'après les annales de la province cet édifice fut construit primitivement en l'an 504 de notre ère. Un bonze célèbre, Yaô Kouang-chiaô, y avait établi sa demeure: cet anachorète, un original sans doute, avait un chapeau de bonze, un vêtement de lettré confucien et des souliers de taoïste. Redevenu propriété particulière sous les Ming, ce temple ne fut rendu au culte qu'en 1641. Il fut visité en 1703 par l'illustre empereur K'ang-Hi qui fit cadeau au supérieur de plusieurs pancartes ornées chacune de quatre caractères tombés de son pinceau de jade. Conservées pieusement en souvenir de cette auguste visite, ces pancartes existèrent jusqu'à l'époque de la rébellion: à ce moment les bonzes furent brutalement chassés et traqués dans les montagnes par les Hommes à longs cheveux, soi-disant propagateurs du christianisme en Chine, et les pancartes disparurent. Les bonzes les recherchèrent avec le plus grand soin lorsque la tranquillité fut rétablie, mais ne parvinrent pas à les retrouver: ils en déplorent la perte encore aujourd'hui.

D'après l'histoire et la tradition, c'est sur l'emplacement même où se trouve maintenant le temple de K'oung-loung que vécut, un siècle avant Jésus-Christ, un pauvre bûcheron nommé 朱買臣 Tchou Maï-tch'en, qui, grâce à sa persévérance dans l'étude, parvint aux richesses et aux honneurs. On nous permettra de narrer ici l'histoire de ce bûcheron qui a sa place au Panthéon chinois.

TCHOU MAÏ-TCH'EN,

OU LA PERSEVERANCE DANS L'ETUDE CONDUIT A LA RICHESSE ET
AUX HONNEURS.¹

Sous le règne de l'empereur Vou des 'Han antérieurs² (140

1. Tchou Maï-tch'en est un personnage historique. Sa biographie se trouve dans le 前漢書 *Ts'ien 'Han-chou*, annales des 'Han antérieurs, Livre LXIV, 1re partie, et renferme en substance les faits que l'auteur du récit que nous traduisons ici a mis en œuvre.

2. 漢武帝 'Han Vou-ti.

à 86 avant J.C.), vivait dans le département de Kouëi-tsi¹ un individu nommé Tchou Maï-tch'en, et surnommé Oueng-tseu.² Il était pauvre et n'avait pas encore pu faire son chemin dans le monde; il habitait avec sa femme une misérable chaumière bâtie sur le flanc de la montagne K'ioung-loung, là où s'élève aujourd'hui le temple de ce nom. Chaque jour, il allait couper du bois dans la montagne et portait ses fagots au marché de la ville pour les vendre: c'est ainsi qu'il subvenait péniblement aux dépenses du ménage. Il aimait d'instinct l'étude et avait toujours un livre à la main; encore qu'il portât des fagots sur l'épaule, il lisait à haute voix ou récitait des vers tout en marchant. Les gens du marché y étaient accoutumés; aussi, dès qu'ils entendaient la voix de quelqu'un qui chantait, ils savaient que Tchou arrivait avec sa charge de bois.

Comme Tchou était un lettré, tout le monde avait pitié de lui et lui achetait des fagots, et que, de plus, il ne discutait pas sur le prix et qu'il acceptait la somme qu'on lui offrait, il vendait sa marchandise plus facilement que les autres. Cependant un certain nombre de jeunes gens le méprisaient, et souvent les gamins, qui le voyaient lire, tout plié qu'il fût sous son fardeau, s'attroupaient autour de lui et le tournaient en ridicule. Mais Tchou ne s'en souciait en aucune manière.

Un jour, la femme de Tchou Maï-tch'en, étant sortie pour aller puiser de l'eau, vit son mari entouré et suivi d'une foule qui battait des mains en se moquant de lui: elle en rougit et en fut toute honteuse; aussi quand son mari revint de la ville après avoir vendu ses fagots, elle lui dit:

—Si tu veux étudier, ne vends pas de bois, ou si tu veux vendre du bois, n'étudies pas. Es-tu donc fou et idiot pour te conduire ainsi à ton âge? N'est-ce pas honteux d'être ainsi la risée des jeunes gens!

—Je vends du bois pour vivre, répliqua Tchou Maï-tch'en; j'étudie pour arriver à la fortune et aux honneurs: l'un n'em-

1. 會稽 Kouëi-tsi, département actuel de Sou-tchéou.

2. 翁子.

pêche pas l'autre; que l'on se moque de moi si l'on veut, cela m'est indifférent.

—Si tu veux parvenir à la fortune et aux honneurs, reprit la femme, ne vends pas de fagots: a-t-on jamais vu un bûcheron arriver à exercer une charge publique? Ne dis donc pas des choses qui n'ont pas le sens commun!

—La richesse et la pauvreté ont chacune leur temps, répliqua Tchou. Un devin qui a tiré mon horoscope m'a prédit qu'à cinquante ans je serais quelque chose: d'ailleurs on dit constamment que *l'on ne peut mesurer l'eau de la mer avec un boisseau*.¹ Ainsi ne vous occupez pas de moi.

—Ce devin, interrompit la femme, a vu que tu étais stupide et a voulu te tromper: ne crois pas qu'à cinquante ans tu ne porteras plus de bois sur le dos; tu seras certainement mort de faim avant cette époque. Puisque tu désires exercer une charge, il y a justement celle de juge qui est vacante au palais de Yen-lô-ouang (le roi des Enfers).² Va l'occuper!

—L'illustre Kiang,³ répartit Tchou, sans s'émouvoir des injures de sa femme, pêchait à la ligne à l'âge de quatre-vingts ans sur le bord de la rivière Oueï,⁴ quand le roi Ouen, de la dynastie des Tchéou,⁵ suivi de ses chars, le rencontra et le salua du titre de 尙父 Chang-fou (Père estimé).⁶ Le premier ministre Koung Soun-houng,⁷ qui vécut sous la dynastie actuelle des Han, gardait encore des pourceaux à l'âge de cinquante-neuf ans: ce ne fut qu'à soixante ans que l'empereur l'appela à sa cour. Moi, j'arriverai à quelque chose à cin-

1. C'est le proverbe chinois: 凡人不可相貌海水不可斗量 *fan jen pou k'ô siang maô, 'haï chouëï pou k'ô téou leang*, "On ne peut pas plus juger des gens sur l'apparence que l'on ne peut mesurer l'eau de la mer avec un boisseau" équivalent du nôtre "l'habit ne fait pas le moine."

2. 閻羅王殿上少個判官.

3. 姜太公.

4. 渭水 *Oueï-chouëï*, la rivière Oueï, dans le Chan-toung.

5. 周文王 Tchéou Ouen-ouang.

6. Charge de l'époque.

7. 公孫弘.

quante ans: ce sera plus tard que Kan-lô,¹ il est vrai, mais encore plus tôt que les deux personnages qui je viens de citer. Il faut que tu prennes patience.

—Ne cherche pas des exemples dans l'antiquité, répondit sa femme: ce pêcheur et ce gardeur de pourceaux avaient tous deux des aptitudes et du savoir. Toi, tu lis des livres inutiles; tu auras beau étudier pendant cent ans, cela ne te servira de rien. Ah! j'ai vraiment eu peu de chance quand je t'ai épousé: les enfans se moquent de toi, et la honte s'étend jusqu'à moi. Si tu ne crois pas ce que je te dis et si tu ne jettes pas tes livres loin de toi, je ne te suivrai plus: que chacun s'en aille de son côté, que l'un ne retienne pas l'autre.

—J'ai maintenant quarante trois ans, dit Tchou; dans sept ans j'en aurai cinquante: attends jusque-là; ce ne sera pas long. Si tu me quittes maintenant, tu t'en repentiras plus tard.

—En ce monde, s'écria la femme en colère, il y a beaucoup de bûcherons comme toi: pourquoi regretterais-je de t'avoir quitté? Si je te suis encore pendant sept ans, je ne sais pas où j'irai mourir de faim. Laisse-moi au contraire m'en aller: je pourrai au moins vivre un peu plus longtemps.

Tchou, voyant que sa femme était bien décidée à le quitter, et qu'il ne pourrait pas la retenir, dit en soupirant:

—Eh bien! va-t-en! je ne désire qu'une seule chose, c'est que tu trouves un mari plus riche que Tchou Maï-tch'en: alors tout sera parfait.

—Mon mari sera certainement plus riche que toi, répliqua sa femme.

Elle le salua et sortit sans détourner la tête.

Tchou, resté seul et triste, exhala sa mélancolie dans les quatre vers suivans qu'il écrivit sur le mur:

嫁犬逐犬
嫁雞逐雞
妻自棄我
我不棄妻

1. 甘羅. L'histoire rapporte que Kan-lô fut premier ministre à l'âge de douze ans (voir le 列國志 lié-kouô-tche).

Lorsqu'on épouse un chien, on le doit suivre partout ;
 Lorsqu'on épouse un coq, on le doit suivre partout ;
 Ma femme me quitte d'elle-même,
 Ce n'est pas moi qui la chasse.

Quelque temps après, comme il descendait un jour la montagne à travers les tombes, courbé sous une charge de fagots, et tout en récitant des vers, il rencontra son ancienne femme qui accompagnée de son nouvel époux, était venue accomplir les cérémonies exigées par les rites à la sépulture de ses ancêtres. Le voyant souffrir de la faim et du froid les deux époux en eurent pitié, l'appelèrent et lui donnèrent à boire et à manger.

Lorsque Tchou Maï-tch'en eut atteint l'âge de cinquante ans, il lui arriva de faire partie de la suite du collecteur des impôts, et d'être, en cette qualité, chargé de conduire à la capitale, nommée alors Tch'ang-an,¹ des voitures de vivres et de vêtements. Il eut occasion d'adresser une lettre à l'empereur, mais cette lettre resta longtemps sans réponse. Tchou, qui en attendait une, vit bientôt ses ressources s'épuiser; heureusement que le collecteur lui fournit de quoi vivre. A ce moment-là, un de ses compatriotes, alors bien en cour, vanta ses talens à l'empereur Vou et le lui présenta. L'empereur fut charmé des connaissances littéraires de Tchou et le nomma préfet, tout en le gardant près de lui comme officier du palais. Après diverses vicissitudes de fortune (Tchou tomba un moment en disgrâce), l'empereur, sachant qu'il était originaire de Kouei-tsi, pensa qu'il devait être habitué au climat de cette localité, et qu'il était au courant des bons et mauvais sentimens de la population; il le nomma 太守 t'ai-chéou ou préfet de Kouei-tsi. Il lui dit un jour: "Si, à présent que vous êtes devenu riche, vous ne retournez pas dans votre hameau natal, c'est absolument comme si vous vous promeniez pendant la nuit revêtu d'habits magnifiques." Tchou remercia l'empereur et lui demanda la permission de retourner à Kouei-tsi.²

Or, l'empereur Vou préparait justement en ce temps là une

1. 長安, aujourd'hui 西安府 Si-an-fou, capitale de la province du Chan-si.

2. *Ts'ien-Han-chou*, Biographie de Tchou Maï-tch'en.

expédition contre le pays de TOUNG-YUÉ:¹ il ordonna à Tchou de se rendre à Kouei-tsi pour y réunir des jonques de guerre et des vivres de toutes sortes et y attendre ses ordres.

Auparavant, lorsque, par un retour de fortune, Tchou Maï-tch'en était un instant tombé en disgrâce, il avait été logé et nourri par un des officiers du préfet de Kouei-tsi: nommé préfet, il reprit ses vieux habits déchirés, mit dans son sein le sceau orné du cordon, marque de sa dignité, et se rendit à pied à Kouei-tsi. Tous les officiers et fonctionnaires assistaient alors à un grand festin: Tchou, sans être remarqué, entra dans la salle où il avait lieu. Mais son ancien bienfaiteur, l'ayant reconnu, lui désigna une place parmi les assistans: Tchou, après avoir bien bu et bien mangé, laissa voir un peu le cordon appendu au sceau. A cette vue, son ami fut étonné, et, tirant le cordon, amena le sceau lui-même. C'était le sceau de préfet de Kouei-tsi. L'officier, surpris, fut le dire aux autres convives qui, pris de vin, s'écrièrent: "c'est une fausseté, cela ne peut être!—Venez voir vous-mêmes, répondit celui-ci. Un de ceux qui avaient méprisé jadis Tchou alla voir et revint en criant: "c'est vrai! c'est vrai!" alors tous restèrent un instant immobile d'étonnement; puis, revenus à eux-mêmes, ils allèrent, chacun selon son rang, saluer Tchou et le féliciter.²

Peu après, le chef des haras de Tch'ang-an, conduisant un char attelé de quatre chevaux, vint prendre le nouveau préfet. Tchou monta dans le char et se dirigea vers la ville.

Le sous-préfet de Kouei-tsi, averti de la venue prochaine de son chef, s'était hâté d'envoyer un grand nombre d'habitans réparer la route par où il devait venir. Le mari de la femme de Tchou Maï-tch'en était parmi eux. Comme le cortège du préfet, composé de plus de cent chars et d'une foule de fonctionnaires en chaise, à cheval ou à pied, qui avait été le recevoir en dehors de la ville, approchait de l'endroit où se tenait cet homme, sa femme, les cheveux dénoués et les pieds nus, venait de lui apporter à manger: elle jeta un coup d'oeil sur

1. 東越, c'est la province actuelle du Tche-kiang.

2. *Ts'ien-Han-chou*, Biographie de Tchou Maï-tch'en.

le cortège et reconnut son ancien époux dans la personne du préfet. Celui-ci, alors assis dans un char magnifique, la reconnut aussi: il s'arrêta, envoya un de ses officiers la chercher, fit venir un char de sa suite et invita les deux époux à y monter. Une fois à la préfecture, la femme, toute honteuse, ne savait quelle contenance tenir: elle se prosterna aux pieds de Tchou en reconnaissant qu'elle avait eu tort. Tchou lui dit de prier son mari de venir pour qu'il le vit. Ce dernier accourut et se prosterna sans oser lever les yeux sur le préfet.

—Eh bien! dit en riant Tchou à sa femme, il me semble que ce mari n'est pas plus riche que Tchou Maï-tch'en!

La femme, repentante, fit trois salutations et pria Tchou de la prendre pour servante: elle jurait de le servir jusqu'à la mort. Mais Tchou ordonna d'apporter un seau plein d'eau; il en versa le contenu à terre et dit à sa femme:

—Tu ne peux pas plus revenir avec moi que l'on ne peut ramasser cette eau répandue;¹ mais, comme je me souviens de notre ancienne affection, je te donne un terrain derrière mon jardin: tu pourras le planter et y vivre.

La femme suivit son second mari: tous les passans la montraient du doigt en s'écriant:

—Voici l'ancienne femme du nouveau préfet!

Elle en était toute confuse et toute honteuse: arrivée au jardin, elle se jeta à l'eau et périt.²

La morale de cette histoire peut se résumer dans les quatre vers suivans:

枝在牆東花在西
自從落地任風吹
枝無花時還再發
花若離枝難上枝

1. Litt. 若潑水可復收則汝亦可復合, *jô p'ô-chouei k'ô fou chéou, tsô jô y k'ô fou 'hò*, si cette eau répandue pouvait être ramassée, alors tu pourrais aussi être de nouveau unie (à moi). C'est là l'origine de cette expression souvent employée, aussi bien dans les livres que dans le discours: 覆水難收 *fou-chouei nan chéou* "il est difficile de ramasser l'eau répandue" phrase qui peut être très bien traduite par "on ne saurait revenir sur le passé."

2. Les Annales des Han (Livre LXIV, Biographie de Tchou Maï-tch'en) rapportent ainsi la fin de notre héros: "Un an après son retour à Kouei-tsi,

Les branches sont à l'est du mur et les fleurs sont à l'ouest :

Dès que les fleurs sont tombées à terre, le vent les emporte à sa guise.

Si les branches n'ont pas de fleurs, elles pourront en produire plus tard ;

Mais si les fleurs quittent la branche, on ne peut les y replacer.

Cela veut dire que la femme doit suivre son mari comme la fleur accompagne la branche : si la branche n'a pas de fleurs, au printemps prochain elle en produira de nouvelles ; mais si la fleur quitte la branche, on ne peut l'y réunir à nouveau.

En ce monde, la femme doit servir son mari, n'en avoir jamais qu'un seul, et partager ses peines comme ses plaisirs : gardez-vous donc bien, ô femmes, d'avoir l'esprit incertain, de ne songer qu'aux riches, et de mépriser les pauvres, car plus tard vous vous en repentirez !

En sortant du temple nous gravissons le sommet du K'ïoung-loung-chan ; il y avait là, jadis, un élégant kiosque d'où l'on pouvait admirer le Grand Lac, les vallées et campagnes voisines, et, inspiré par l'aspect de la nature, faire des vers en dégustant une tasse de thé. Les rebelles, véritables vandales, l'ont précipité dans la vallée et il n'en reste plus aujourd'hui que les fondemens de pierre sur lesquels il reposait.¹

L'empereur le nomma général et lui donna le commandement de l'armée dirigée contre T'oung-yuë : Tchou se distingua dans cette guerre et fut récompensé par de nouveaux titres et de nouvelles fonctions. Plus tard, tombé de nouveau en disgrâce, dégradé, puis revenu en faveur, il eut à soutenir une lutte d'intrigues contre un censeur puissant : il voulait le faire assassiner, quand un complot dans lequel celui-ci était impliqué fut découvert ; le censeur n'eut autre chose à faire que de se donner volontairement la mort. Incontinent après, par un de ces retours de fortune dont l'histoire chinoise ne fournit que trop d'exemples, Tchou Maï-tch'en fut mis à mort sur l'ordre de l'empereur."

1. A quelque distance à l'est du K'ïoung-loung-chan, se trouve le 靈岩山 *Ling-yen-chan*, Montagne de la Terrasse Divine, appelée aussi 硯石山 *Yen-che-chan*, Montagne de pierres à broyer l'encre : elle produit en effet des pierres avec lesquelles on peut faire des encriers. Il y avait jadis au sommet de cette montagne un magnifique palais, le *Kouan-oua-koung*, bâti par le roi de Vou, 夫差 *Fou Tch'a*, fils de Hô-Lu, pour la belle 西施 *Si Che*, la Vénus chinoise (voir à ce sujet, Mayers, *Chinese Reader's*

Delà nous prenons un sentier étroit et rocailleux couché comme un serpent le long de la chaîne des hauteurs; ce chemin n'est pas sans danger, car il est en quelque sorte suspendu audessus d'un abîme et le moindre faux pas peut précipiter le passant, d'une hauteur prodigieuse, dans une profonde vallée où les hommes n'ont plus que la taille d'une grosse mouche. Au fond de la vallée, à gauche, apparaît un temple pittoresquement entouré d'un bouquet d'arbres: vu à cette distance, il semble tout petit, mais il doit en réalité être assez considérable. Au dire de notre cicérone, il paraîtrait que l'on trouve dans les environs des chevreaux et des sangliers. Avis aux chasseurs. Après mille fatigues et non sans péril, nous atteignons le plus haut pic de cette chaîne rocailleuse et nue: c'est le Tâ-mâ-fou, au nord-ouest du K'ioung-loung-chan. Il y a là encore les ruines d'une maison de briques. On jouit de ce sommet d'une vue splendide sur le grand lac, ses îles, ses bateaux à voiles jaunâtres. Cet aspect nous remet en mémoire deux vers d'un poète de l'époque des T'ang:

遠水無邊天作岸
亂帆一散影如鴉

L'eau qui s'étend au loin n'a pas d'autre rivage que le ciel (l'horizon);
Les voiles qui sont dispersées çà et là ressemblent à des canards éparpillés.

Au nord du lac on aperçoit un amas de tuiles grises; c'est une ville dont la pagode est à peine visible dans le lointain. Derrière le Tâ-mâ-fou sont de hautes collines, parmi lesquelles on nous cite le Yang-chan; plus loin, le T'ien-p'ing-chan qui ne semble plus être la montagne la plus élevée.

Manual, pp. 39, 42, 87 et 177). On pouvait de là admirer à son aise l'étendue du T'ai'-hou et ses deux l'oung-t'ing-chan: il y avait là un puits appelé le puits du roi de Vou. Dans la suite on éleva sur le même emplacement un temple et une pagode: ce fut le 靈岩寺 *Ling-yen-sseu*, Temple de la Terrasse Divine. On y conservait une pierre où l'on pouvait aisément distinguer les traces d'un pied d'homme et d'un pied de femme: c'étaient, disait-on, les pas du roi de Vou et de la belle Si Che, (*Sou-tchéou-fou-tche*). Durant leurs voyages dans le sud de la Chine, les deux illustres empereurs K'ang-Hi et K'ien-loung vinrent établir leur palais de voyage ou résidence temporaire (行宮) au sommet du *Ling-yen-chan*.

Nous descendons la montagne par un sentier glissant, et regagnons notre bateau à travers champs; à peine à bord, le *lô-tâ* largue les amarres et nous fait reprendre notre course. Notre canal se dirige d'abord vers le sud-ouest, traverse Mô-dô (à deux heures de K'oung-loung-chan), tombe à gauche dans un cours d'eau qui lui-même débouche à son tour à droite dans une rivière assez large. Cette dernière va vers l'ouest et aboutit au grand lac.

Le temps, couvert depuis le matin, s'assombrit encore davantage, et le vent augmente de violence; notre *lôdâ* interroge anxieusement l'horizon et ne semble pas rassuré. A ce moment, notre bateau, toutes voiles dehors, file sur la rivière avec une rapidité vertigineuse. C'est là que nous avons la faculté d'apprécier l'habileté et le coup d'oeil de nos marins; lancés ainsi à toute vitesse sur les ailes du vent, nous arrivons droit sur un pont peu élevé. A un mètre de distance environ et juste au moment où l'on peut croire que le tablier du pont va briser notre mât, nos hommes larguent la voile et abaissent le mât en un clin d'oeil. Le bateau glisse rapidement sous le pont et, de l'autre côté, en moins qu'il ne faut pour l'écrire, le mât est redressé, la voile hissée à nouveau, et nous continuons notre course sans nous être arrêté un seul instant... Bientôt la rivière s'élargit et ses deux rives se terminent par deux langues de terre couvertes de roseaux: ses eaux se confondent là avec celles du Grand Lac.

Le *Taï-hou* ou Grand Lac a, disent les géographies chinoises, 200 *li* de l'est à l'ouest et 120 du nord au sud; il a 500 *li* de circonférence, et renferme en tout 72 îles, grandes et petites. Les trois départemens de Sou-tchéou, 'Hou-tchéou et Teh'ang-tchéou l'entourent de tous côtés. Il paraîtrait qu'autrefois, au dire des annales de la contrée, il y avait là où existe aujourd'hui le *Taï-hou*, cinq lacs distincts qui plus tard se réunirent en un seul: de là viendrait le nom de 五湖 *ou-hou*, les cinq lacs, que l'on donne quelquefois au T'aï-hou. Selon d'autres, 五湖 *ou-hou* serait une abréviation de l'expression 五百里之湖

ou *paï li tche 'hou*, lac de 500 *li*, par laquelle on désignait ce grand lac.¹

La plus grande île de ce lac est le 西洞庭山 *Si t'oung-t'ing chan*, l'île occidentale de T'oung-t'ing. Elle renferme une grotte jadis visitée et décrite par M. Medhurst: après elle vient, comme grandeur, le 東洞庭山 *Toung t'oung-t'ing chan*, l'île orientale de T'oung-t'ing.

Lorsqu'il vente assez fort, les eaux du grand lac ne sont généralement pas élémentes, et comme les vagues en sont semblables à celle de la pleine mer, ce n'est pas sans appréhension que les chinois s'y aventurent par un mauvais temps avec leurs bateaux à fond plat. Notre lôdâ aurait bien voulu que nous fissions halte dans l'une des anses de la baie pour attendre une accalmie: malheureusement nos jours sont comptés, il nous faut être de retour à Changhaï à une époque déterminée. Nous le forçons à braver les ondes courroucées et à naviguer vers le T'oung t'oung-t'ing chan. Tant que notre bateau cingle le long du bord, tout va bien; les vagues n'y sont pas fortes et nous filons rapidement. Mais nous avons un instant de crainte. A un moment certain nous donnons si violemment plusieurs coups de talon que nous pensons avoir touché un roc. Encore que l'eau ne soit pas profonde à cet endroit, il ne nous aurait pas été agréable de prendre un bain dans les eaux jaunâtres du T'aï-'hou. Notre équipage en alarme se hâte d'examiner le fond du bateau de peur qu'une voix d'eau ne s'y soit déclarée; heureusement qu'il n'en est rien. Notre batelier nous assure que nous avons sans doute talonné la carcasse de quelque jonque naufragée.

Une fois en plein lac, les vagues sont plus menaçantes et viennent heurter avec fracas les parois du bateau; le mat craque en fléchissant sous le vent; des objets mal amarrés courent l'un après l'autre d'un bord à l'autre et semblent se chasser mutuellement. Notre esquif penche de côté et effleure de sa voile l'extrémité des vagues. C'est une vraie

1. *Sou-tchéou-fou-tche.*

tempête, non pas dans un verre d'eau, mais dans un des plus grands lacs de la Chine. Nous ne sommes pas sans inquiétude, car la moindre fausse manoeuvre peut faire chavirer notre barque à fond plat; mais l'équipage est adroit, et le *lôdâ*, qui tient le gouvernail à deux mains, manoeuvre à la lame avec adresse.

Nous avançons, néanmoins, peu à peu vers l'île orientale de T'oung-t'ing, et, au fur et à mesure que nous approchons, nous distinguons ses pics élevés, ses montagnes profondes et ses villages épars. Nous avons le cap sur une anse de l'île près de laquelle se trouve un grand village: une fois à l'abri de l'île, les vagues deviennent moins soulevées et le vent est plus maniable. De ce côté s'élève une petite forêt de pieux de bambous disposés pour la pêche par les habitants de l'île; à travers, circulent des troupes de canards sauvages qui se laissent bercer par les vagues et voyagent de conserve. Nous passons ensuite une digue de rochers, destinée à briser les lames et à protéger les navires qui se réfugient dans cette anse contre la furie des eaux du lac, et après une traversée périlleuse agrémentée de mal de mer (si toutefois l'on peut s'exprimer ainsi) nous pouvons enfin jeter l'ancre dans une baie tranquille et calme. Avant le diner, nous parcourons le village et les alentours, et, malgré le vent qui souffle encore avec force, quelques canards tombent sous nos coups de fusil: la montagne, nous dit-on, regorge de chevreuils. Mais, le jour baisse, nous devons remettre au lendemain le soin de vérifier l'exactitude de cette assertion.

L'île orientale de T'oung-t'ing est un peu plus petite que sa voisine de l'ouest: elle a 80 *li* de tour, mais elle a presque le même aspect que le Si-toung-t'ing-chan dont elle est éloignée de 18 *li*. On lui donne quelquefois le nom de 莫 釐 山 *Mô-li chan*, Montagne de Mô-li, parceque, rapporte l'histoire, un général de ce nom, qui vécut sous la dynastie des Souëi, y habitait. De là vient aussi le nom du pic le plus élevé de l'île, le 莫 釐 峰 *Mô-li fong*, Pic de Mô-li.

A l'est de ce pic s'étend, du nord au sud, une chaîne de collines dont les principaux sommets portent les noms de 芙蓉峰 *Fou-joung-foung* pic du Fou-joung (*Hibiscus mutabilis*), de 翠峰 *Ts'ouei-foung*, pic vert, etc. Sur ce dernier, paraît-il, existe une source appelée 白龍泉 *paï-loung-tsuan*, Source du Dragon Blanc. Au sud, on distingue le 犀牛峰 *Si-niéou foung*, pic du Rhinocéros.

D'après la tradition, il y aurait sous le Paô-chan, une des montagnes de cette chaîne, l'entrée d'un immense souterrain qui s'étendrait jusque sous le lac même: on lui a donné le nom de 地脉 *ti-mô*, raie (*litt.* pouls) de la terre. Le roi 'Hô-lu y envoya jadis un certain Maô Tchang, surnommé 龍威 *Loung-ouei*, la majesté du Dragon, qui, la chandelle à la main, marcha pendant dix jours et dix nuits dans ce souterrain sans en trouver la fin. Quand cet explorateur revint, il dit au roi: " A l'entrée, le souterrain était tellement étroit que je fus obligé de ramper: au bout de quelques *li*, j'arrivai dans une chambre de pierre haute de deux *tchang*, où l'eau suintait de toutes parts: il y avait là un lit de pierre et une petite table sur laquelle étaient trois volumes: je les ai rapportés." Il présenta ces ouvrages au roi qui ne sut pas ce que c'était: Hô-lu pria Confucius de venir les examiner. Ce grand philosophe dit: " c'est le livre de l'Empereur Yu des Hia: il renferme tout ce qui a rapport aux Génies et à la Grande Doctrine."

Hô-lu ordonna à Maô de pénétrer de nouveau dans le souterrain; Maô revint après vingt jours d'absence: " le chemin que j'ai suivi, dit-il, n'était pas le même que celui que j'avais pris la première fois. Au dessus de ma tête j'entendais le bruit des vagues; des insectes extraordinaires venaient en grand nombre nous entourer et voler autour des lumières; des hirondelles et des chauve-souris voltigeaient alentour. Il nous fut impossible d'aller plus loin." En souvenir de ce hardi explorateur on avait donné à un endroit le nom de " Demeure du Vénérable Maô.¹

1. *Sou-tchéou-fou-tche; Kiang-nan-t'oung-tche.*

Le lendemain matin, à l'aube, nous quittons notre bateau le fusil sur l'épaule et nous gravissons la montagne. Les flancs en sont couverts d'arbustes peu élevés et de broussailles; les chevreuils s'y cachent et s'y dissimulent. Une battue est organisée grâce au concours d'indigènes soudoyés par notre *lôdâ* et, en peu d'heures, plusieurs chevreuils tombent sous nos coups.

Les habitans de l'île ne nous voient pas d'un bon oeil nous livrer à ces exercices cynégétiques; en effet, eux aussi chassent le chevreuil mais d'une façon fort primitive. Armés d'une longue latte de bambou et d'un couteau, et suivis d'un chien, ils tâchent de surprendre l'animal au gîte, de l'assommer ou de lui ouvrir la gorge. Aussi faut-il recourir à un argument *ad hominem* très en honneur en Chine et qui a toujours grand succès auprès des indigènes de ce pays, la piastra, pour les décider à nous servir de rabatteurs.

Tout en chassant, nous sommes arrivés au sommet de la montagne; à nos pieds les versans forment une sorte de vallée en entonnoir, vallée profonde toute parsemée de tombeaux et de monumens funéraires. Les parois en sont tapissées, aussi bien que le fonds, de tombes étagées. Les unes, dont les habitans sont sans nul doute des gens de la classe ordinaire, consistent en une simple dalle et un 碑 *pei* ou colonne où sont gravés les noms et prénoms du défunt et le nom de la dynastie sous laquelle il a vécu; les autres, appartenant à des gens d'une classe supérieure, à des fonctionnaires aisés, se composent d'une sorte d'autel où se lisent les noms et titres du défunt, et d'une ou plusieurs basses enceintes circulaires; quelques unes de ces dernières sont à plusieurs étages. Presque toutes sont en ruines: la main impitoyable du temps a passé par là. Le sol est jonché de débris de colonnes commémoratives, de balustrades renversées, de murs démolis. L'état dans lequel sont ces tombes est la preuve même de leur antiquité; les familles auxquelles elles ont appartenu n'ont plus aujourd'hui

hui de représentans et personne ne vient plus accomplir les sacrifices usuels ni entretenir ces dernières demeures.

A l'extrémité de la vallée, là où elle se rétrécit et est dominée immédiatement par la côte à pic de la montagne, existe un petit temple ombragé par quelques arbres. Dans la grande salle du milieu sont deux ou trois statues bouddhiques minées par le temps. Nous y faisons la rencontre d'un vieux gardien qui, sans être effrayé le moins du monde par notre attirail guerrier, nous offre, selon les rites, la pipe à eau, le tabac et la tasse de thé classiques. Remarquons à ce propos que les européens, surtout quand ils peuvent s'exprimer en chinois, sont généralement bien reçus par les paysans et gens de la campagne certainement moins hostiles aux étrangers que l'habitant des villes. Le vrai chinois des champs, tout ignare et hirsute qu'il soit, n'en est pas moins plus poli et de commerce plus facile que les citadins soi-disant civilisés. Notons aussi que parmi ces derniers, ce sont ceux qui ont eu des rapports constans avec des européens, ou qui ont vécu avec eux, qui sont les plus insolens et les plus canailles.

En parcourant les côteaui, nous nous trouvons tout d'un coup, au détour d'un chemin, en face d'un enfant de neuf à dix ans qui, à notre vue, se met à pousser des cris à pleurer à chaudes larmes et à trembler comme une feuille. Il voit sans doute des européens pour la première fois et les armes dont nous sommes munis ne sont pas faites pour le rassurer; peut-être même nous prend-il pour le célèbre Mâ-tâ-fou, le croquemitaine chinois. Nous tentons de le calmer à l'aide de quelques sapèques, mais tout est inutile; un passant qui l'a pris dans ses bras nous fait signe de nous éloigner.

Nous gravissons le Mô-li fong; au sommet existe un petit temple orné de quelques statuette dorées; les paysans des environs y viennent faire brûler des bâtonnets d'encens et accomplir les cérémonies exigées par l'inexorable *rite*. Une jeune fille de vingt à vingt cinq ans (on ne peut jamais dire exactement l'âge des femmes chinoises) est la seule gardienne

du temple. Elle est aussi fort effrayée de notre apparition et c'est à peine si les *fe nia gô*, ne craignez rien! de notre *lôdâ* parviennent à la rassurer un peu.

Du haut de ce pic on jouit d'une belle vue sur le lac, les ilots et les rivages lointains où se dressent les montagnes que nous avons visitées ces jours derniers. Derrière nous s'aperçoit l'île entière avec ses villages épars, ses anses, ses collines couvertes de pins et de débris de tombeaux. Sur le chemin qui se déroule le long des hauteurs, de bonnes paysannes et des petits garçons joufflus, tout endimanchés, et chargés de paquets de lingots de papier argenté, se rendent au temple pour y faire une cérémonie en mémoire de parents défunts.

L'île de Toung-Toung-t'ing est notre dernière étape et marque la fin de notre voyage; il nous faut au plus vite rentrer à Changhaï et nous replonger dans le tourbillon des affaires. Après une nuit passée dans l'île, nous sortons de l'anse le lendemain matin au jour, hissons la voile et traversons à nouveau le grand lac. Seulement, cette fois les ondes en sont apaisées et le vent souffle légèrement. Nous reprenons le même canal, passons Mô-dô, puis, à une heure et demie de là, le village de Ouang-doung où l'on peut voir un joli pont de trois arches surmonté d'un élégant kiosque rectangulaire. Après deux heures de navigation à la cordelle (le vent ne nous étant pas favorable), nous atteignons le faubourg de Si-meun, porte de l'ouest de Sou-tchéou. Le soir, nous couchons sous les murs de K'oun-chan, ayant fait halte en route pour tirer quelques faisans le long des canaux. Le lendemain nous descendons tout le Vou-soung-kiang et, poussés par un vent favorable, arrivons à Changhaï à la tombée de la nuit.

ARTICLE V.
SOME NOTES OF A TRIP TO COREA, IN
JULY AND AUGUST, 1883.

BY

G. JAMES MORRISON, Esq.

In placing the following paper before the Society I hope it will be understood that it is only intended to be of a superficial character. In first visiting a strange country one sees many new things, but one is sure to make egregious mistakes if he generalizes too quickly and on insufficient bases, and I would rather have the paper characterized as incomplete than as incorrect.

I left Shanghai on the morning of Sunday the 8th July, and after a rather stormy passage the Ferrier Islands were sighted on the morning of Tuesday the 10th.

These islands are at what may be called the entrance to the harbor of Jenchuan, inasmuch as after passing them the course lies among islands all the way up to the anchorage. Passing the Ferriers at about 10 o'clock, we arrived at Roze Island at about 5 p.m. The official name of the port is Jenchuan which is the name of the nearest place of any importance, but the spot where the Custom House has been temporarily located and where it is purposed to make the foreign settlements, is called Chi-mul-poo and the port is usually spoken of by that name. In front of Chi-mul-poo there is an island called by the French Roze Island, immediately to the west of which there is good anchorage for a large number of vessels. The scenery between the Ferriers and Roze Island is very pleasing when the water is high, but at low tide the vast extents of mud flats detract much from the beauty of the landscape. There is a rise and fall of about 28 feet at spring tides at Chi-mul-poo, and at low water there is a foreshore of mud

about two-thirds of a mile in width. In some of the bays in the neighbourhood the extent of foreshore is very much greater. The Custom House has been placed close to a small bluff which projects some distance into the bay, and here it has been possible to construct a small jetty of reasonable length reaching down to low water. At present the vessels lie about half a mile to a mile south-west of Roze Island, and against the tide it sometimes takes an hour for a boat to reach one from Chi-mul-poo. The charge for a boat to a steamer and back is from \$1 upwards, but as trade increases this charge will no doubt be much diminished.

On a bright day and at high tide the view of the islands from Chi-mul-poo is very picturesque; the view of the mainland from the sea is not so pleasing,—still it compares very favorably with Chefoo or any of the places which residents in Shanghai have opportunities of visiting during a short holiday, and there is every reason to hope that some day a very delightful watering place may exist on some point on the south-west coast of Corea.

Chi-mul-poo can hardly as yet be called a model settlement, but it may possibly have a great future in store.

Immediately to the south of the knoll or bluff above-mentioned lies the Japanese settlement. Here the Japanese have built a considerable number of wooden shanties, and offer for sale a most heterogeneous mass of commodities. They seem to have settled down determined to cast in their lot with the place, and it may only be a few years before some of these men who are at present owners of a shanty and a few dollars' worth of stores will be wealthy storekeepers. The great difficulty to be encountered is the absence of the trading class, who could exchange commodities with the foreign importer. I feel quite certain, however, that the difficulty does not arise from the inability of the country to furnish exports, but from the absence of a class which hitherto has not been required, and which the usual law of supply and demand will soon call into existence.

Among the Japanese storekeepers there are I believe now one or two Europeans, but there were none when I was at Chi-mul-poo.

Immediately to the south of the Japanese settlement lies the foreign settlement—for foreigners other than Japanese. I cannot say that I think the choice of a site has been a happy one. The ground is low and must be raised with disintegrated granite, a process which is generally considered very unhealthy; but putting aside this, which after all is but a temporary difficulty which will disappear after the settlement is all raised, nothing can ever improve the two-thirds of a mile of mud foreshore at low water. Even if after 30 or 40 years the place became rich enough to reclaim all this, it is very doubtful if the result would not be to throw out another mud flat in front.

There were no houses on this settlement when I was there, and it is to be hoped that the question of the location of the settlement may be reconsidered. The anchorage is undoubtedly very good, and if the settlement must be in that neighbourhood, either Roze Island or the land immediately to the north of the Custom House knoll would be preferable to the present place. As all the goods would be taken into the country in boats by the Seoul river, there is very little objection to the settlement being on an island, particularly when the distance to the mainland is only a few hundred yards.

The European portion of the population is almost entirely confined to the customs staff. The Commissioner, Mr. Stripling, is an old and valued member of this Society, whose hospitality to strangers in that country will astonish no one who knows him here. His residence is situated rather more than a mile from the settlement, and most of the staff live in the adjoining house; but ere long (that is as soon as the receipts begin to flow in) it is intended to build houses better suited to the requirements of the place.

On landing at Chi-mul-poo I found that I could ride to the capital, but my baggage would have to be carried by bulls.

The idea of veritable bulls being used as beasts of burden was new to me, but it appears that when hard-worked they are very quiet, and I soon got accustomed to seeing them toil along under enormous loads. A few cows are used for the same purpose, but their number is very limited compared with the number of bulls. (It may be remarked here that all the male cattle as well as the horses are entire, the process of castration not being practised in Corea except in the case of eunuchs required for the palace).

The breed of cattle is remarkably handsome, but the cows do not seem to give much milk.

Through the kindness of Mr. Stripling I was provided with a first-rate pony, but in spite of this the journey to the capital was rather tiresome. The country, though somewhat pretty, is on the whole uninteresting. The soil consists of disintegrated granite and other rocks, and consequently there are many large barren patches to be seen in every direction, some of the hills being absolutely bare.

As usual when travelling in such countries with some of the attendants on foot, it was necessary to go at a walk, and the consequence was that starting from Chi-mul-poo at 10 a.m. on Wednesday the 11th, we did not reach our resting place at the capital till 7.30 p.m.,—the distance being about 25 or 26 miles.

The Capital of Corea—Han-yang or Seoul as it is called on maps, Seoul as it is generally known by Coreans and by foreigners, and Hwang-ch'êng as it is usually called by the Chinese—is a large but not very densely populated city.

It is surrounded by a wall, and has large and somewhat handsome gateways. The main roads are very wide, somewhat after the character of the roads in Peking, but being composed of disintegrated granite they dry very quickly after rain, and are much cleaner than the roads in the Chinese capital. The smaller sheets are filthy. They have side ditches into which is thrown all the refuse from the houses, and the smell is almost unbearable. The palaces

and some of the public buildings are fine compared with the general run of house in the country, but compared with the public buildings of Western countries, or of those of Eastern countries which retain buildings erected in the days of their prosperity, they are very inferior.

The shops are very poor, many if not most of them being mat sheds erected in the main streets, but they are good enough for the wares exposed for sale. The natives display some ingenuity in ornamenting their pipe stems and in the manufacture of articles inlaid with mother-of-pearl, but a visitor wishing to bring away some memento of his trip may walk about a long time before he finds any thing worth carrying away which is at the same time characteristic and pretty.

At Seoul I was most hospitably entertained by Mr. P. G. von Möllendorff, a member of the Corean Foreign Office and Chief of the Customs. The house in which he lives is one of the best in Seoul. It was the residence of one of the princes, who was murdered in it at the émeute in 1882. In consequence of this murder having taken place, none of the native officials cared to live in the house, and thus it was available when a residence was required for Mr. von Möllendorff. There is a large enclosure with several detached buildings.

The Coreans are in the habit of removing their shoes on entering a house, and the floors of the better houses are polished or covered with strong oiled paper. The roofs are low, and the doors being made to suit the small proportions of the Coreans, are in many cases very trying to the skulls of foreign visitors.

After spending a few days at Seoul I received permission to make a trip into the interior. One of my greatest difficulties was an interpreter; I found to my horror that no one could be found who could speak Corean and English, and I feared my intercourse would be confined to what could filter through my boy, whose knowledge of English was of the most limited character, and a Corean who spoke Chinese; but I soon found that though my Chinese is of the feeblest, it was exactly the

same dialect as that of my interpreter, and before the end of the journey we got on capitally.

My party consisted of myself, an interpreter, a boy, and a coolie, all mounted on ponies, three ponies carrying baggage, and a chair and two chair coolies. The greater part of the time I travelled in company with a Corean official, and thus was permitted to lodge at the Yamêns in the various cities which I visited. This official had a servant who rode a pack pony, while he himself had a chair with four bearers. The speed at which such a party can travel does not exceed $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour, so that a 30 miles journey takes nine hours besides the time lost in stoppages, say two hours per day. Thus starting at 6.30 and travelling 30 miles one may expect to arrive at his destination at about 5.30 p.m.

My pony was only about ten hands, and I feared he would not be able to carry me, but he stood the journey remarkably well, only requiring a little care when the day's distance was exceptionally long. The chair was taken in case the pony should give out, and I tried it once to see how I liked it. Like other Corean chairs it had no seat, so that one had to sit cross-legged, and ten minutes was enough for me.

Every Corean who rides has a man to lead his pony. The saddles of the officials are so high that one wonders how the rider manages to keep his balance. The lower classes when riding have generally a certain amount of baggage, on top of which they sit. The servant of the official in whose company I travelled rode a China pony, and the baggage was so arranged as to give a level surface right across the two bundles and the pony's back. On top of this was laid a carpet, and there the servant squatted, sitting cross-legged, and smoking and fanning himself all day, while a mafoo led the pony. The Coreans exhibit considerable ingenuity in packing their own baggage on the pack ponies, but foreign baggage bothers them a good deal, and even such a thing as a bundle made up in a different way from what they are accustomed to, seems to present difficulties, though square boxes, large boots, jars of

oil, deer's horns, and all sorts of incongruous articles to which they are accustomed, seem to fit together like the parts of a dissected map. My portmanteau, if I did not watch it, was sure to be placed so that any rain would run into it; and on one occasion my bed, which was wrapped up in a waterproof sheet, was placed so that when opened after some three hours' heavy rain the sheet was half full of water, and I could not use my bed for three nights, while enough rain had got in at one end of my portmanteau to wet about two inches of every article in it. My baggage sustained a little damage on another occasion in fording a river which turned out to be a little deeper than was expected, but luckily at the worst ford which I crossed I was without baggage, as I was making only a day's excursion from a village where I was staying. At the last mentioned ford the water took the men nearly up to the arm pits. There was a village close by where the inhabitants were expected to supply men to carry travellers across the stream. The stream runs with considerable velocity when in flood, and it is hardly safe for one man to cross it alone. I was taken across on a chair, borne on the shoulders of six men; the officials, interpreters, &c., were carried in the same way; while the attendants and all the tag-rag and bob-tail that fasten on to a travelling party stripped, placed their clothes on their heads, and forded the stream two or three in company. Some ponies swam by themselves, others were held by a halter. I passed this same ford a week later with baggage, but the water was then low and there was no trouble. Getting one's baggage wet is one of the greatest annoyances in travelling, and I could not bear having my sleeping room heated to dry it, as I had had one night's experience of that and preferred damp clothes.

In a short visit one has hardly time to form any definite ideas regarding the manners and customs of the people, but certain peculiarities are sure to be brought prominently to one's notice.

The first night after I left Seoul I got into a miserable

inn, and after having some dinner sat down on my bed to write a few notes. The night seemed oppressively hot but I saw no help for it, so had my mosquito net put up; but in tucking it under my bed, I found the floor so hot as almost to burn my hand. On enquiring I found that all proper sleeping rooms had fire places under them to warm them in winter, but in the poorer class of houses, for the sake of economy, this heating was done by the kitchen fire. As the thermometer during the day had been over 80°, I felt no inclination to be cooked at night, so declared my intention of sleeping in the stable. At last, however, a room was found in a house about a quarter of a mile off where the fire had been out for some hours, and I managed to get through the night there, though the heat and the insects allowed me little rest. Subsequently in the better places I took care to give orders not to light the stove under my room, but I found that the native officials sometimes had theirs lighted in wet weather, in spite of the heat.

When travelling by night it is necessary to get a proper pass from the officials. With this one has a right to demand torches and guides at each village. Sometimes the people object, and occasionally it results in a fight. It so happened that on the only two occasions when I travelled all night I was not in company with any official, and although I ordered all the torches to be paid for and all the guides to have a small present, I don't feel sure that the money always went to the right person. On one occasion at a lonely hamlet the people were very wroth at being turned out at one o'clock, and declared they had no torches; however, after a little bit of a free fight and a fruitless search in one or two houses, the attendants broke into one rather better-looking house and soon appeared with a large bundle of torches. Proceedings of this sort are to be deprecated, but at the moment I was passing on over an uninteresting bit of country to reach a city I wanted to see before the arrival of the steamer, and as I had had no-

thing to eat since tiffin, and my boy nothing to eat since early breakfast at five o'clock, we were too anxious to get torches to be over particular as to the action of our attendant guards, who after all were only acting according to usual custom.

Some of the torches consist of bundles of straw, but the best are branches of Scotch fir dried and partially split. On a dark night when the atmosphere was clear, our party of half a dozen ponies with their mafoos, and six or eight attendants with large torches looked quite picturesque. The route I followed from the time of landing at Chi-mul-poo till I embarked was Chi-mul-poo to Seoul, thence to a point some 30 miles beyond Kin-ching, thence by a somewhat different route back to the capital, thence to Chio-ha, and thence by an entirely different route to Chi-mul-poo, a distance altogether of about 350 miles. During my stay in the capital I had seen very few women; that is to say, most of those I had seen had their faces covered to a greater or less extent. Subsequently when travelling in the country I saw many. These were so ugly that at first I thought the pretty ones must all take great care to conceal their charms, but after having caught sight of a few whom I managed to see before they had time to wake up, I got fair proof that the uglier the women were the more they tried to hide themselves. I was confirmed in this view of the case by the fact that the only decent specimens of feminine humanity which I met with made no attempt at concealment, and I finally came to the conclusion that the women knew how hideous they were, and for the credit of their country they hid themselves from strangers as much as possible.

The attempts at hiding occasionally gave rise to amusing manoeuvres. On one occasion I came suddenly on a woman who had just crossed a river. The bank at which she had arrived offered no means of shelter, while the other bank was wooded. Though the river was 100 yards broad and tolerably swift, she at once turned and recrossed it, and as the

water came a long way above her knees the proceeding was not one which modesty would have suggested to a European.

The dress of the women consists of loose trousers covered by a skirt somewhat larger than that worn by Milk women in London. The skirt or petticoat has a very high waist. The shoulders and arms are covered by a very short jacket with long sleeves. The jacket is so short that it is little more than a collar, and between it and the skirt there is a lucid interval of five or six inches through which the breasts protrude or generally hang. Even when the face is carefully concealed, the women think nothing of exposing this part of their persons, and if the cloak over the face covers this also, it is only as a secondary affair.

The dress of the men is too well known by residents in Shanghai to require much description: trousers covered by a loose robe generally of linen, and a sort of long scarf of blue gauze, with a wide-brimmed hat of black horsehair. This hat is rather an elaborate affair; first there is a sort of fillet which encircles the head and is fastened by strings and connected with the knot of hair, which all Corean married men wear on the top of the head. On top of this a small brimless hat fits. This hat is worn in-doors, and varies in shape according to the rank of the official. The non-official class wear a very plain hat, but almost all have a slight knob or boss in front to make room for a jewel, which is often worn attached to the fillet above mentioned. This brimless hat is worn in the house, and in the case of the non-official class the wide-brimmed hat is worn over it. In the case of high officials the indoor hat is of too elaborate a description to be worn under the other hat, and it is therefore replaced by a plainer one before the out-of-doors hat is put on. To a European it would appear that if it were not for the honor of the thing a man would be as well off without a hat as with it, because being composed of very open horse-hair gauze it must offer very little protection from the sun or wind. The unmarried men do not tie up the hair

in a knot, but part it in the centre and plait the ends into a queue at the back. Many of them have a great deal of hair, and when a traveller first sees them (generally in a boat at some little distance) he almost invariably supposes them to be women.

In some respects one travels in Corea with much more comfort than in China. Although a foreigner is much more of a curiosity there than in the latter country, he is much less pestered by inquisitive crowds. In those parts of China where a foreigner is nearly unknown, the crowds of rough natives are a source of much inconvenience and discomfort, even where they have no wish to do any harm. In Corea there are not so many large cities where roughs abound, and besides this the people are much more gentle in their ways, and though anxious to see seem equally anxious not to annoy. The accommodation, except in the Yamêns, is simply filthy. Even there, although there is a show of cleanliness, as exemplified by the men taking off their shoes and by papering the floor, there is an amount of insect life perfectly appalling to a European, and I would strongly advise any intending traveller to provide himself with a picul of Keating's insect destroying powder.

The food which one can obtain is pretty much the same as in China: rice, chickens, eggs, vegetables of various sorts, Indian corn, beef, dried fish, and I presume in some localities fresh fish. The general drink of the people seemed to be cold water. This is accounted for by the magnificent streams of water, as clear as crystal, which are met with all through the country. Pools five or six feet deep are perfectly transparent, and even when the rivers are in flood after heavy rains only the slightest possible trace of turbidity is discoverable. This description does not apply to the tidal portions of the Seoul River. After passing Mapoo (near Seoul) this river runs through a great deal of low-lying alluvial country, and towards its mouth becomes muddy; and the mud from this and similar rivers seems to be the source of the soft slime which covers the foreshore in the neighbourhood of Jenchuan.

It was with difficulty that I could be persuaded that the Korean rivers in the district which I visited contained no fish, but such I found to be truly the case, and it is accounted for by the fact that at certain seasons they are nearly dry.

Before passing from the drink question, I may mention that the Koreans seem to be much more advanced in the matter of the use of spirituous liquors than their neighbours the Chinese. Their ordinary spirit is I think a good deal stronger than the ordinary Chinese samshoo, and either from this cause or from their imbibing in larger quantities, numerous drunken men may be seen reeling or lying about the streets. That this is due entirely to the spirit and not to any special inability to carry it is rendered quite certain by a series of most careful experiments with Scotch whiskey.

As one travels into the interior of Corea, though the formation of the country cannot be said to be materially changed, the scenery and the general appearance of vegetation gradually improves. Towards the coast the rock is near the surface and is barely covered with a thin stratum of poor soil. Inland, though the rocks still belong to the very old formation, there is a covering of rich black mould. The fields are more fertile and better cultivated; one sees rice, millet (Kao-liang), small millet (Siao-mi), beans, Indian corn, oats, barley, cotton, jute, flax, tobacco, and numerous other crops. The hills in many places are cultivated to the summit; in other places they are covered with woods. As far as I went I saw no forests, but at the furthest point which I reached some large trees were to be found in the woods.

For some distance inland the bottoms of the valleys were level plains from which the hills rose abruptly on either side, and through which ran a winding stream, clearly indicating that the valleys had been filled up by material brought down by the streams from the higher districts, and that little of the material was derived from the hills at the side. It seemed hard to reconcile this with the fact of the extraordinary clear-

ness of the water, but most of the detritus consists of clean sand, and a considerable quantity of that can be rolled along the bed of a river without making it in the least turbid. After getting 60 to 80 miles inland, I found the character of the valleys changed entirely. The hills no longer rose abruptly from level plains, but from the bottom of the hills proper there was a slope more or less steep reaching down to the stream, which no longer seemed free to wind about the valley at its pleasure, but was confined to one bed. After this country was reached, the scenery was very fine indeed. There were no mountains to be seen, but there were numberless very high hills, and when one reached the summit of a pass and could get an extensive view of the surrounding country, he felt well repaid for all the discomforts of a pretty trying journey.

The people as a rule seem poor. The cities, with the exception of Seoul, are without walls, and the villages are collections of miserable huts. In one city which I visited, Chia-ho, or Chio-ha, not only were there no ponies to be had, but there was not even a stable to be found. Notwithstanding this, the chief magistrate when carried in a chair was preceded by trumpeters and men with gongs, and was accompanied by a band, and the people prostrated themselves before him with the greatest respect. In every city which I visited I saw the same submission to the officials.

At a magistrate's Yamên at night a piece of music is played by a band. This music which lasts four or five minutes could not be mistaken for Chinese music; but further than saying that it has a character of its own I am unable to describe it.

Like China the country is cursed with an inordinate number of officials, and expectant officials. There being no road to distinction except through office, the number of candidates is necessarily out of all proportion to the posts. Many of the subordinate expectant officials have an allowance of rice and about \$2 a month. Under these circumstances it is not to be wondered at that on one occasion on leaving a place I

was told I owed a dollar for some eggs and a few other little things I had bought, and when I paid it at least 20 respectable-looking men sat down on the floor and went into an elaborate system of accounts to see how much belonged to each for the portion he had provided. These men seem to be absolutely without occupation, and appear to a stranger to be a useless, lazy lot of hangers-on at the Yamên. If any man can stand several years of such a life and still preserve some energy for work when his time comes, he must be a man of considerable strength of character, and perhaps well worthy of the respect which is shown him.

The agricultural classes seem to a great extent to provide for their own wants; that is to say they grow crops in the first place for their own use, and only sell the balance. One came upon no districts where apparently the people grew one crop for sale and lived on the proceeds. The whole family works, when necessary, in the fields. I saw women on many occasions transplanting rice, a sort of work which I have never seen them perform in China. There seems to be an utter absence of the class of merchant. The producer seems to sell his surplus to the retail dealer, and there are no large stocks of manufactured articles anywhere. I was informed that even in the matter of hats it was difficult to find one ready made: they were all made to order.

The Koreans make use of very few mechanical contrivances, but I noticed one for hulling rice similar to the ones used in Formosa and other parts of China. It can only be used in places where the streams have a considerable fall, and is unsuitable to a flat country. A long beam fixed on a pivot carries a sort of cistern at one end, and a hammer or pestle at the other. This is placed on the bank of a stream, and water from a higher portion of the stream is brought along an artificial channel and made to discharge into the cistern. As soon as the cistern is full, it weighs down that end of the beam—raising the pestle, but in doing this it practically upsets the

cistern and allows the water to run out into the stream below. When the cistern is emptied, the pestle falls with great force on the rice which is placed in a mortar. This action brings the cistern again under the spout of water, and the process is repeated. The cistern holds about a ton of water, and the machine gives about four strokes per minute.

There is one implement, I might almost say one agricultural machine, in use in Corea which deserves some notice, viz: the spade. I have heard of an egg so big that it required two hens to lay it, and of a window so large that it required two people to see out of it, but I never expected to see in Corea a spade so large that it required five men to use it. The spade or shovel consists of a flat piece of wood shod with iron, and provided with a long handle. To each side of the blade of the shovel there is attached a rope, and in the larger shovels each of these ropes is split into two. When in use one man takes the handle of the shovel to direct it, but apparently does little in the way of supplying power, which is furnished by the four men who pull the ropes. The directing man, the helmsman so to speak, inserts the point of the shovel in the stuff to be moved, the rope pullers give a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull altogether, and, if the ropes do not break, about half a shovelful of earth is detached and thrown a small distance. To any one who believes that it is the duty of a government to find the greatest amount of work for the greatest number this invention would appear to be of the highest utility.

There is I believe an abundance of game in some parts of Corea, but there was very little to be seen along the route that I travelled.

I saw some deers' antlers, and the skins of some small wild pigs, but I saw no live specimens, and only one pheasant and a few cranes and any number of paddy birds. I was told there were tigers in the woods, but that they were never seen. Probably there used to be tigers, but they have now gone north to the more thinly populated districts.

Of the insect life (with the exception of the domestic parasite above alluded to) I can say little, but one could not fail to remark the magnificent butterflies, some gaily colored and others jet black, with wings as large as the palm of my hand. The green and red dragon flies, metallic beetles and other attractive insects were very common. Near Seoul there are numerous scizzor-grinders; up-country I heard scarcely any, but there were millions of wee-wees which, as far as I know, are unknown south of Peking.

The measures of weight, of distance and of value are apparently much the same in Corea as in China, though it is really difficult to get information on such apparently simple matters. The Coreans had, however, the picul, the catty, and the tael for weight, and their *li* is as nearly as possible the third of an English mile. For money they have little besides cash in use, but they count by the tael. A short time ago silver coins of 1, 2 and 3 mace value were struck or rather cast, but they have been recalled, being supposed to be rather too high in value, and likely to leave the country. The ordinary cash are about the size of Chinese cash, but they are exchanged at the rate of 750 cash to a tael or 525 to a dollar.¹ This makes them equal in value to about 2 Shanghai cash.

The exchange does not vary, but this of course arises from the fact that practically all transactions are in cash, and when one speaks of a payment of 100 taels one only means 100 bundles of 750 cash each. When business begins to flourish, and traders begin to make bargains for payment in silver, exchange must vary unless the system of a standard coin and token currency can be introduced, which would be very difficult, though the attempt would probably not be so hopeless as in China. At present the tael may almost be taken as a token for 750 cash, and the large cash which are equal to 5 small cash invariably pass at their proportionate value. The gener-

¹ A few months after this was written, foreign intercourse had raised the rate of exchange of the dollar at Chi-mul-poo to over 700 cash. G. J. M.

al impression left on my mind was that Corea was a country of great capabilities, but the primitive condition of the people and the absence of any large native trade place great obstacles in the way of a rapid opening-up of the country.

The country is capable of producing exports of many kinds, but these have not yet been produced in sufficient quantities to exchange them for any considerable quantity of imports. It is impossible to produce any of the export articles at a moment's notice, and for several years while an export trade is being worked up, a small amount of imports must be doled out to them, leaving a very small and very problematical profit to the foreign merchants. The fact that the country was shut up inspired most exaggerated ideas regarding the enormous trade that was sure to spring up immediately it was opened. These ideas have I think been pretty well dissipated, but believing as I do that the poverty is more in the people than in the country, I think there is fair reason to hope that ere many years are past the open ports of Corea may be flourishing centres of trade.

ARTICLE VI.
NOTES ON SOME DIKES AT THE MOUTH
OF THE NANKOW PASS.

BY
H. B. GUPPY, M.B.

SURGEON, R.N.

Whilst remaining a day at Nankow during an excursion to the Great Wall in November 1878, I came upon three basaltic dikes cutting through the outcropping edges of the limestone beds; they were lying close under an old square tower which is situated on the north side of the small stream where it passes the town. They pierced the limestone beds at right angles to the strike: their direction therefore corresponded with the dip, being S.S.E.—N.N.W; (the beds of limestone of the district are inclined to the S.S.E. at an angle varying from 40° to 50°). The smallest of the three dikes, which was a foot in width, became at one portion of its course suddenly contracted; and it assumed a rather tortuous outline before it was lost to view, where its width was about three inches. The dike adjacent, which was separated by about four feet of rock, was about two and a half feet across. Next to it and separated by about two feet of rock was another dike—also two and a half feet wide. The extent of surface over which they could be traced I roughly placed at from 25 to 30 yards. The want of correspondence between the portions of the dikes on the opposite sides of a little hollow between two beds of limestone afforded evidence of a lateral movement; which, after the consolidation of the intrusive basalt, fractured the dikes and displaced the limestone beds along the line of strike. There seemed to have been a lateral movement of about a foot in the case of the two left-hand dikes (vide diagram); whilst the one on the right only exhibited about

half a foot of displacement. The limestone in contact with one and adjacent to the basalt did not display those well-marked effects of the proximity of an igneous rock which one might have anticipated. A tendency to become more fissile, and the formation of concentric concretions some two or three inches wide which projected above the surface of the rock, appeared to me to be the most noticeable signs of "alteration." Such are a few notes on the subject of these dikes, which deserve a careful examination from any one who may interest himself in the geology of this region. It is worthy of note that Sir Charles Lyell in his "Student's Elements of Geology" describes some dikes of vesicular and amygdaloidal lava near Palagonia in Sicily, which, as shewn in a ground-plan in his work (page 532), exhibit evidence of lateral movement as well as of tortuosity.

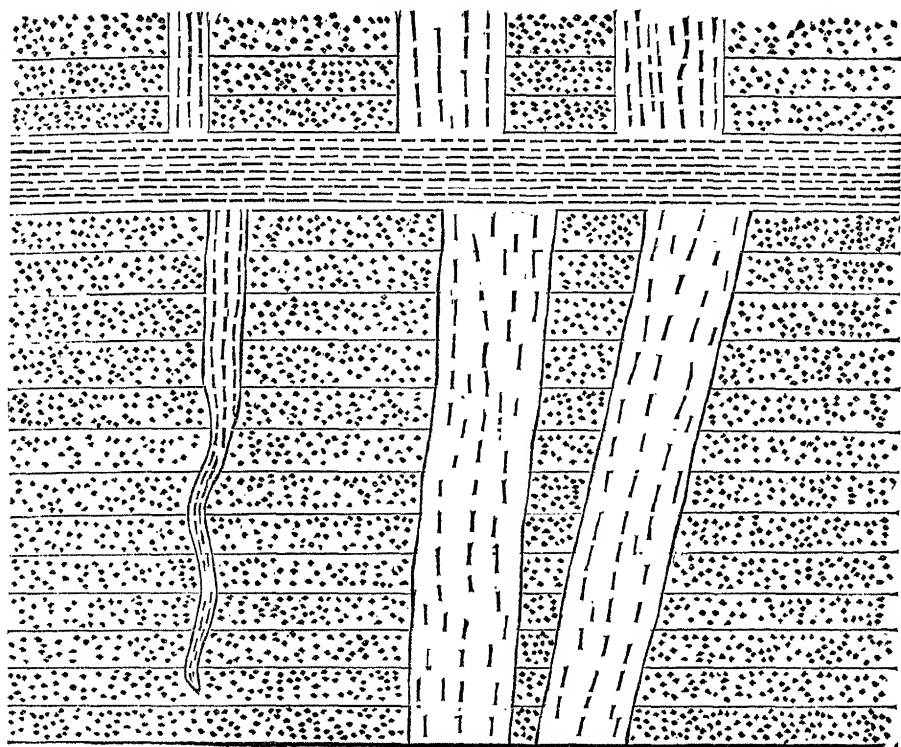
H.M.S. *Lark*, Auckland, N.Z.


March 7th 1882.





DIAGRAM, GROUND-PLAN, &c.

Ground-plan of three basaltic dikes at the mouth of the Nankow Pass penetrating the limestone-beds at right angles to their strike.



 basalt, cutting across the outcrop.

 limestone, cropping out at surface.

 hollow, separating the detached portions of the dikes.

ARTICLE VII.
SAMSHU-BREWING IN NORTH CHINA.

BY

H. B. GUPPY, M.B.

SURGEON, R.N.

Whilst at Tientsin in the winter 1878-1879, I visited two of the Samshu breweries in the suburbs of that city, and made the following notes on the mode of preparation of this spirit.

The first step in the process is concerned with the production of the fermenting-element or yeast. This is obtained by grinding down a quantity of oats and barley or some other cereals: the powder is then moistened and shaped into brick-like cakes, and is kept for a period varying between six and twelve months before it is ready for use: some of these cakes, which I observed stowed away like bricks in the corner of one of the buildings, were much worm-eaten and partially encrusted with mould. When required for use the cakes of this fermenting-element are reduced to a fine powder, which is kept dry and ready at hand. This powder when examined microscopically is shewn to be composed in great part of the starch-cells of either barley or wheat, together with a large number of small disconnected bodies which exhibit a lively molecular motion when moistened, and are evidently the spore-cells of the ferment-fungus.

The next stage—that of fermentation—may be thus described. In a building, which is kept cool in summer and artificially warm in winter, a number of large earthen jars are buried in the ground with their mouths on a level with the surface; these jars are filled with millet-grains previously mixed with about five catties of the powdered yeast-cake, and moistened with water; when filled, each jar

is plastered over with mud and covered with millet-refuse; and there it is allowed to remain undisturbed for ten or eleven days, during which time the fermentation is in active operation. On examining with the microscope a small portion of millet which had been thus fermenting for ten days, I found it composed of starch-cells scattered sparsely about, and of an abundance of smaller yeast-cells sometimes disconnected and at other times developing in chains or rows.

The process of distillation occupies about an hour. When the fermented millet is taken out from the jars, it is placed in a large wooden vat or tub, the bottom of which is made of a kind of grating; and beneath this vat is placed a large boiler of water which is heated by an adjacent furnace. The steam ascending through the grating and passing through the fermented millet finally comes into contact with a cylinder of cold water; it is there condensed, and trickling off into a little gutter finds its way out through a long spout in a clear stream of veritable samshu. After the process is completed, the vat is emptied of the millet, which is subsequently dried and sold as fodder for ponies, donkeys, etc.

“Kow-liang” is, I believe, the name of samshu thus prepared from millet. The spirit to which these notes refer, is that which is in common use amongst the poorer classes in Tientsin; and in two different samples which I examined the proportion of alcohol by volume varied between 48 and 54 per cent. I was informed that the samshu drunk by the higher ranks is a weaker spirit, and is only prepared on the approach of the warm season.

H.M.S. *Lark*.

Solomon Islands, April 13th 1883.

ARTICLE VIII.
NOTES ON SZECHUEN AND THE YANGTSE
VALLEY.

BY

ARCHIBALD J. LITTLE, Esq.

Read 3rd December 1883.

Mr. Little, in introducing his paper, remarked; that, it was only owing to the urgent solicitation of their energetic President, who had exerted himself so successfully to procure papers for the meetings, that he had consented to produce before the members his notes on a subject which had been already thoroughly treated by travellers so distinguished as Blakiston, Baber, Richthofen and Armand David. He had gone over no new ground and had nothing new to tell. He hoped that the relation of what he had seen would prove interesting and lead to a discussion on the points raised in his paper. He would begin by giving a general outline of the main physical features of the Yangtse valley and conclude by a brief account of his journey to Chungking.

The Yangtse River which, traversing the country from West to East, may be said to divide the Chinese Empire into two nearly equal portions,—eight provinces being situated on its left bank with precisely the same number on the South; two only, Ngan-hui and Kiang-su, lying partly on both banks,—has a course of about three thousand miles in length. For two-thirds of this distance it runs through a mountain land in a continuous ravine, the valley being nowhere wider than the actual river bed. In the lower portion of its course, which forms the remaining third of the distance, the valley widens out and the stream flows through an alluvial plain, following

generally the southern boundary of its valley except where it forces its way through the limestone range which forms the boundary of Kiangse and Hupeh, above the town of Kiukiang, past the vertical cliffs called Split Hill and Cock's Head in our English charts, until it emerges into its delta proper near Kiang-yin, 110 miles above the entrance to its estuary at Yangtse cape. The stream issues from the mountains at the Ichang gorge, just 1,000 nautical miles from its mouth; and some 50 miles below this point the boulders and gravel of the upper river disappear to give place to banks of soft alluvium, the outline of which varies every season, notwithstanding the gigantic embankments with which it is sought to retain the stream in its channel. These begin a short distance above the important emporium of Shasze, situated in the middle of the great plain of Hupeh, 83 miles below Ichang. Here we find the river at the time of its summer floods running with a four and five knot current at a level of 15 or 20 feet above that of the surrounding country, the great dyke on the North bank being continuous nearly to Hankow, while the South bank is open to the floods as far as the eye can reach; a vast inland sea is then formed, which mingles its waters with those of the Tung-ting lake proper, from which its outline is undistinguishable. The fall of the bed from Hankow downwards must, if Mr. Baber's observations are to be relied on, be extremely slight. But for the accuracy for which that model traveller's work is undeniably distinguished, one would almost be inclined to doubt his results. A comparison of three years' simultaneous barometrical readings at Chungking and Sikawei the resumé of some 4,000 observations given in Mr. Baber's work, exhibits a difference in level between the two places of only 630 feet. This altitude is correct only upon assuming the two places to be on the same isobaric, which is hardly likely. I think, all things considered, we may safely assume the normal mean pressure at the inland station to be not more than one-tenth greater than that on the sea-coast, in which case the

maximum possible addition to Mr. Baber's altitude would be 100 feet and this puts the height of Chungking at the still comparatively low level of 730 feet. Let us take half this difference and assume the level to be 680 feet. Now as the average rate of the current down the rapids which, large and small, obstruct the river throughout the whole distance of 400 nautical miles between Chungking and Ichang, is not less than six knots, the estimate of Captain Blakiston, (another traveller remarkable for his assiduous work,) of a fall of 14 inches to the mile between these two places, cannot be considered excessive. This would give a total of 467 feet as the fall for the 400 miles between Chungking and Ichang, leaving 213 feet only for the 1,000 miles between Ichang and the sea. It will be interesting, now that an efficient Customs' staff is engaged at Ichang in recording the needful observations to test this datum by their results when published. If correct, it would show that Hankow is little more than 150 feet above sea level, a fact not generally credited. The *great fall* in the river bed is as is only natural, in the upper half of its course, where the stream rushes, as an unnavigable mountain torrent through the defiles of the almost impenetrable ranges of Western Szechuen and Thibet, and where Mr. Baber estimates the fall at no less than six feet per mile. The average speed of the, by comparison, more tranquil lower half of the river's current, say from Pingshan to the sea, a distance of 1,600 miles is still, as Captain Blakiston points out, double that of the Nile and Amazon and 3 times that of the Ganges. The volume of water brought down per second as measured by the same observer, is at Ichang in June 675,800 feet; that at Hankow at the same period according to Dr. Guppy of the "Hornet," who utilised his stay there to carry out an elaborate series of observations on the subject, being nearly one million feet, the increase being due to the influx from the Tungting Lake and from the Han river the only true affluents between these two points. Compared with these figures it is curious to note that the

water discharged into the sea by the old familiar Thames is estimated at 2,300 cubic feet per second. Reducing the figures given by Captain Blakiston for Ichang in June to the average of the whole year on the basis of Dr. Guppy's monthly observations in Hankow, we find the discharge at the former port to be actually 560,000 feet per second for the whole year round which would make the volume of water at Ichang, 1,000 miles from the sea, just 244 times that of the Thames at London.

The comparison of the sediment annually brought down by the respective rivers at these two points is as 2,000,000 cubic feet to 5,000,000,000 or as 1 to 2,500. Taking the drainage area of the upper Yangtse at 500,000 square miles and estimating the sediment discharged as above both Captain Blakiston's and Dr. Guppy's figures give a rate of subaerial denudation for the whole catchment basin of about one foot in 3,000 years. This consideration becomes important when we come to study the geological formation and natural aspect of the province of Szechuen of which I propose to give a brief outline before we conclude.

It seems to me a matter of no doubt that in ancient times the Yangtse River upon leaving the mountains discharged its waters into the ocean through a series of lakes analogous, in a way, to the manner in which at the present day the waters of the Saskatchewan discharge themselves through Lake Winnipeg and the great Canadian Lakes into the Atlantic. The remains of these lakes are still visible in the flooded country which extends each summer many miles back on either bank, the whole distance from a little below Ichang right down to Chinkiang,—a length of 800 miles. When we see that each summer nearly half an inch of sediment is deposited and the level of the surrounding country raised each year to that extent, we cannot help being struck with two facts: one, the vast depth of the original lake bottoms; the soil set free by the erosion of the Szechuen water-courses to a level of many

hundred feet below that of the original plain has failed even now entirely to fill up the vast cavities once occupied by these ancient lakes: the other striking fact is the very recent formation of the existing landscape. *China, in fact, the oldest extant country politically, is geographically one of the very newest.* A few years more, geologically speaking, and these basins will be entirely filled and the whole of the sediment brought down will be available for promoting the advance of the coast seawards, an advance even now so great that every resident of a few years only in Shanghai has had ocular demonstration of it.

I think then we may assume that the first of these Great Lakes extended from the Western Mountains, formerly known as the Y-ling or Hills of the Barbarians, the easternmost spurs of which are lost near the village of Tungche some 30 miles below Ichang, down to the range of the Wu-hsüeh hills which occupy nearly one hundred miles, or two thirds of the distance between Hankow and Kiukiang, and through which the river flows with a rapid current in a confined channel joining, much as the Detroit river connects Lake Michigan with Lake Ontario, this upper lake with the next in the series of small lakes, through which the river at one time discharged into the ocean. The first of these I take to be represented by the plain North of Kiukiang and the valley west of Ngan-king. Below this again we have the small plain, of which Wuhu is the centre, forming another lakelet and connected with the lake above by the winding, rock-infested channel which flows round Hen Point and athwart the mountain ranges of Ngan-hui. The Eastern boundary of this lake would seem to be the hills environing the old city of Taiping-fu. We then come to Nanking, to the South of which now stretches a large alluvial plain, 25 miles across, the lower portion of which is still, for a considerable period of the year, below the level of the river and which apparently formerly communicated with the Tai-Hu and the series of lakes of lower Kiangsu. At the present day we find these ancient

lakes practically filled up, being only just in time to see the finishing touches being given by the annual summer floods, to the land that now occupies their site. Formerly the bulk of the sediment was arrested in these lakes and the turn of the delta had not then come. At that time doubtless the river flowed through "the Pillars" which were then close to its mouth, in a comparatively pellucid stream, an hypothesis which is confirmed by the fossils of the old beaches found in the neighbourhood. I have myself at rare intervals in the depth of a dry winter, noticed clear water and an absence of current at this very spot.

At the same time, however, we have no reason to expect that as the banks become thus rapidly raised, in a short time the floods will cease altogether, natural as this result would at first sight seem to be:—for, the bed of the river must be rising simultaneously in the ratio of its extension seawards, and thus higher and higher banks are constantly needed.

Marco Polo, 600 years ago, in his chapter on the "*Great River Kian*" says "It is in some places 10 miles wide, in others eight, in others six, and it is more than 100 days journey in length from one end to the other——It seems indeed more like a sea than a river."

Now if, as is probable, Marco visited the river during the summer floods, this is no exaggeration and it is curious to find Colonel Yule criticising this passage as exaggerated and giving, as a probable explanation, the fact that Marco's expressions about the river were perhaps accompanied by a mental reference to the term "*Dalai*" *The sea*, which the Mongols appear to have given to the river.

We thus ascend by a series of wide steps, to Ichang a total height of about 200 feet. Here, where the river issues from the mountains, we continue our ascent by a series of short steep steps, well described by the Chinese as Mên-ka'rh, or thresholds, and over each of which flows one of the famous Yangtse rapids—"effrayantes cataractes" as they are termed

by the worthy Père Amand David; but at the same time rapids amenable in my opinion to steam power, should the Chinese ever take the matter seriously in hand and encourage Western enterprise in that direction. These steps lead us by way of the celebrated gorges through the limestone ranges which bound Szechuen on the East and divide it from the wide plain of Hu-koang, the province of Broad Lakes. We are now in the Red Basin of Richthofen and traverse the vast modern sandstone formation of Eastern Szechuen in a ravine cut down 1,000 feet or more below its surface. Here owing to the softer nature of the rock the rapids are less violent, although still of almost continuous occurrence and we have always a fierce current to contend against. These conditions prevail until, on the one hand, in the Kin-sha-kiang we meet with a torrent flowing through inaccessible gorges and on the other hand, in the Min river which, by the Chinese, is regarded as the true Kiang or main-stream, we ascend to the unique plateau of Cheng-tu. This plateau is our next step upwards from Chung-king and is just 1,000 feet above the level of that city. Beyond this plain, famous for its fertility and elaborate system of irrigation and which runs in a N. W. and S. E. direction 90 miles in length by 40 in width, the mountains on the West, (the nearest conspicuous peak of which is the famous O-shan) rise rapidly to a height of 12,000 feet and upwards, and form the Eastern bulwarks of the great Thibetan plateau beyond. This alluvial plain of Cheng-tu through which now flows a net-work of clear streams with gravelly beds, was also once a lake whose basin was gradually filled with the boulders and coarser detritus from these Western mountains. Below that, possibly in tertiary times, we have the evidence of the sea that formerly occupied the now rugged country of Eastern Szechuen and in which the coal measures with the superincumbent sandstones of which the surface is now composed, were deposited. At a subsequent period, as the land rose, the surface of the former sea-bed must have gradually become exposed to denudation and then the channels of the

present rivers began to be cut out; and if as seems probable, a dam then existed on the Eastern border of this sea, it had not been broken through nor had the gorges, through which the water subsequently escaped seawards, then been opened. Through and across this sandstone plain, run a succession of parallel ranges of limestone mountains, all trending more or less in a N. and S. direction and rising to a height of 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the sea, forming the "cross ranges" through which the Yangtse and its affluents now break their way in a series of magnificent gorges. The intervening plateaus, originally level, except where tilted up against the steep flanks of these ancient ranges, have since been worn away by erosion into a fantastically rugged landscape, reminding one of the picturesque scenery of the Saxon Switzerland but on a grander scale. Every stream, large and small, has cut its way down and flows in a steep ravine, ascending which, except always in the neighbourhood of the "cross ranges" a small stretch of comparatively level ground is reached until the next ravine is met with. Hence the land roads are mainly a succession of ascending and descending stone staircases, up and down which, the sturdy little Kueichow ponies, to the manner born, scamper with astonishing nonchalance. It is in spots where these sandstone cliffs overhang the stream that we find the square, port-hole looking, entrances of the ancient cave-dwellers described by Mr. Baber and spoken of by the modern inhabitants of the province as Mantze. Coal underlies the whole formation and is exposed at the surface in the gorges of the Yangtse and its affluents where these cut through the cross ranges. It is largely mined, coal forming the staple fuel of the country; the junks of the upper waters all have their brick chimney and at meal times when vomiting the soft-coal smoke have the appearance of antediluvian steamers.

The peculiarity of the Yangtse, as distinguished from the other great rivers which take their rise in the South-eastern

corner of the Thibetan plateau, the Irrawaddy, the Salween and the Mekong, is that, whereas all four, in the early part of their courses flow close together in parallel valleys running North and South, the three latter alone continue to follow the prevailing lay of the mountain ranges and retain a Southward course. On the other hand the Yangtse, or Kin-sha-kiang as it is here designated, after accompanying its neighbours down through nearly ten degrees of latitude, upon reaching the vicinity of Talifu in Yunnan, recurves suddenly northwards, abandons its associates and strikes out a course of its own athwart the rows of mountain barriers which fail to turn it aside from its steady progress to the Eastern sea. Owing to the circumstance of its course being thus mainly in a direction transverse to the axes of the ranges traversed by it, we find its channel down to its emergence in the plains of Hupeh to be a series of zigzags, consisting of a succession of reaches running at right angles, alternately S. W. and N. E. and N. W. and S. E. In the former it runs in comparatively open ravines parallel to the radial axes of the mountains enclosing it. In the latter it breaks through them by the magnificent clefts of the gorges. The strata in these are for the most part horizontal or only slightly inclined and it would appear that they are natural splits in the rocks and not gorges gradually formed by erosion like that below the falls of Niagara. In some of the gorges, and these spots naturally afford the most striking views, the split takes a sharp rectangular turn such as is only likely to occur in horizontal strata with vertical cleavage, the absence of more extended denudation being very wonderful and, to me, inexplicable.

In the outlying spurs which extend Eastwards from the Ichang gorge we find sandstone and coarse conglomerate, the latter predominating, isolated ranges composed almost entirely of conglomerate rising to a height of 2,000 feet and upwards. South-East of Ichang up the Itu river, a small affluent taking its rise in Honan, which enters the right bank 32 miles below

Ichang in a country not yet explored by the geologist, copper has been found; and a native mining engineer in the pay of Mr. Tong-king-sing was engaged at the time of my visit in attempting to open up mines of that metal. Extensive iron mines are worked by the natives along the river's course between Wu-shan and Wan-hsien, a distance of 100 miles. The iron is brought down in the minute bars affected by the native trade, by numerous small affluents on the left bank, at and between these two places. The sandstones of Szechuen are largely impregnated with iron the washings from which give the red colour to the summer floods. There seems little doubt that these floods which culminate each summer in the Hankow plain, are mainly attributable to the spring rains, the snow from the mountains of the Thibetan frontier yielding only a limited contribution. On the other hand these mountains undoubtedly furnish the golden sands of which a fresh layer is deposited each summer in the river's bed. Throughout the whole course of the upper Yangtse, down to the entrance of the Tungting lake, in winter when the sand and boulder flats are laid bare, gold washing is steadily carried on and a journey up the river immediately before the spring rise exhibits these flats connected into stretches of mounds, having the appearance of a native graveyard; this is due to the refuse heaps of the few cradles employed which are moved from spot to spot and gradually traverse the whole bank. The earnings are small but it is worth the while of the country people to employ their winter leisure at this work. Their earnings, as I gathered from numerous enquiries on the spot, seldom exceed 20 cents per day per man, but the steady supply would seem to indicate the presence of a rich matrix beyond. Immediately below Kuei-chow-fu or Kuei-koan, the famous Likin station situated at the head of the big gorges, salt-wells are in full swing throughout the winter, from the time the large boulder-bank, through which the borings are made, is exposed in December until it is again covered in May. The brine is hoisted to the surface and evaporated, by the aid

of coal, on the spot. Having only been able to make a flying visit last spring, I had no opportunity of stopping to make an examination of this nor of many other interesting spots. I propose merely to give you a rapid outline of my journey with a slight notice of the aspect of the country I traversed. At the time of my departure from Hankow last February the river was at its lowest and the *Kiang-tung*, the steamer by which communication is maintained with Ichang, had ceased to run, there being little more than four feet of water in the channel which meanders through the extensive sandflats at Sunday Island and Salamis Point, the native name for the spot being Tien-hsing-chow. Until I arrived in Hankow, I had no idea that the river was unnavigable for steamers in winter and, misled by the standing advertisement of the "China Merchants" Company in the *North-China Daily News* attached to the departure notice of each Hankow steamer—"taking through cargo for Ichang" I arrived at Hankow in the expectation of proceeding by steam. I, however, found myself dependent upon native means of transport and upon enquiry found that at that time, February, junks often occupied five and six weeks in the ascent, having to wait for a fair wind to take them through each of the many winding reaches which meander through the Hupeh plain. But only heavy goods take this route. A short cut across the lakes to the North of the river, which extend from the banks of the Han to above Shasze, is used for all light traffic. This route begins in a creek, the mouth of which is situated at a place called Kin-kou, 7 miles above Hankow, and ends in a canal, the head of which abuts against the great dyke upon which the emporium of Shasze is built, thus necessitating a short portage for all goods destined for Ichang or higher up. The creek by which the lakes are entered, and which I call a creek *advisedly*, although it is known to the natives of the place as the "Chang-ho" or "Long River," is one of those peculiar channels which exists throughout the whole of the lower division of the Yangtse valley and which communicate

with the existing limited remains of the ancient lakes of which I just now spoke. Their peculiarity consists in the fact of their being effluents in summer and affluents in winter. At one season they drain off the surplus water which they have conveyed inland in the other; taking the sand-laden water up and returning it pure. The Yangtse being now at its lowest, we found the water running out through a narrow channel between high mud-banks in a six-knot torrent and we tracked up with three men in the small flat-bottomed boat I had hired for the trip, with great difficulty. It took us a week to crawl up this desolate stream whose length I estimated at 60 or 70 miles, the current higher up slackening to a more manageable speed. At its source in the lakes, however, there was a sharp overflow, of beautiful bright clear water which we surmounted not without some trouble and delay. Another week was spent in traversing the lakes, which consist of a string of shallow lagoons, from 2 to 10 miles across, connected together by embanked channels, on and behind which the wretched looking towns and villages of this poverty-stricken province are built. The current in these canals was at times favourable, though generally adverse, making the hydrography of the district a puzzle which it would require some study thoroughly to unravel. In one place we passed from a lake into a canal by a breach in the embankment, through which rushed a torrent of water which necessitated our hiring 20 extra coolies to pull us through. The lakes were entirely covered with the Chiaopai, a jointed waterplant, with edible celery-like roots: the dead leaves and stalks covering the surface in a tangled mass and contributing another shade of brownish yellow to the dull monotone of the mud-coloured landscape. The presence of this water plant enables the lakes to be navigated in safety during the winter gales by the smallest craft, as no sea can get up. The channels radiate through the weeds like roads drawn by a ruler across the map. Millions of water-fowl have here their winter home, different sections of the lake

country being parcelled out among the fowlers who make a business of netting them: these men pay a fixed tax for the privilege and are very jealous of a foreign sportsman. The fortnight I passed in this boat was one of the worst in the year; rain and snow-storms were almost continuous and the hills on the North-West, whence, I was informed by the natives, the excessive water-supply was derived, were nowhere visible. The lakes were all above their normal level, the reclaimed portions at their edges and along the banks of the canals which are cultivated with paddy, being all submerged. This state of things had existed two years during which time no crops had been reaped and the misery of the residue of population left in the country and the consequent rebellious spirit of the Hupeh peasantry, may be imagined. Nearing Shasze the country assumes a more civilised aspect, the last six miles of the journey being through cultivated fields and the grave-mounds, which cover such an extensive surface in the neighbourhood of all Chinese cities. Arriving at Shasze, and mooring at the head of the canal, the population, largely composed of Hunan people, fully maintained their reputation of "barbarian-compelling braves" by saluting me with the too-customary brickbat, a supply of which obnoxious article seems always ready to hand in such places. I had to retreat for the night to a sequestered spot lower down the canal, leaving my native companion to charter a boat on the Yangtse side of the embankment, for the continuation of my voyage to Chung-king. I may here mention that I paid \$6 for the hire of my boat with three men from Hankow to Shasze and \$16 for that from Shasze to Chung-king; the distance in the one case being about 200 miles and in the latter 500. The distance by the windings of the river from Hankow to Shasze is, according to the admiralty chart, 287 knots. Shasze is the natural meeting-point of the navigations of the Upper and Lower Rivers and it has thus become the transit station and great inland shipping emporium for the interchange of Western produce

or "Chuen-ho" i.e. goods from Szechuen, with the cotton, piece-goods and sea products of the plain and coast. In this respect its rise and situation are analogous to that of Hankow at the terminus of the Han navigation and like that mart, it is built, as its name implies, on a sand-bank surrounded by water and at times entirely submerged in it. The unruliness of the Shasze population is due to the floating nature of its inhabitants and the absence of any high official authority, the nearest walled town being the prefectural city of Kin-chow where the Taotai resides: this city is situated a few miles higher up and about a mile inland and is not visible from the river, its walls and roofs being below the level of the huge embankment. All along the face of the town this embankment which, at the time of my visit, towered some fifty feet above the water, is handsomely faced with stone, not unlike the somewhat similarly situated British concession at Hankow. The Chinese speak of Shaszo as the "Chên," Hankow the "K'ow" and Shanghai the "Hsien" par excellence, of the Empire. There is no doubt that, under present circumstances, the opening of this port to foreign trade, in lieu of Ichang, would have been productive of far better results, although possibly, with steamers running through Szechuen, a contingency probably contemplated by the advocates of Ichang, (but who, I am convinced, cannot have visited the place themselves) a transfer of the trade to the latter depot may, in time, be effected. At present, that any transshipments of downward produce at all are made in Ichang is due to the fact of the half duties, under the transit-pass system, being payable at the Ichang customs. Ichang itself is a pattern specimen of the dirt decay and misery of almost every inland town (always excepting those in Szechuen) to which the revivifying influence of foreign contact, direct or indirect, is wanting. Let us hope that the Chinese authorities, by the real opening up of the rich cuntry beyond, will do their best to encourage such revival.

Notwithstanding that the port has been opened six years, no merchant has thought it worth his while to settle there, though there are rumours of more than one effort being about to be made in that direction. Thus far, the foreign community of Ichang comprises only the Customs' staff, the inevitable missionary and about the tenth part of a Consul who has an office here which he periodically visits but who in view of the barrenness of the field, is considerably allowed to have his home in Hankow. Shasze is one of the Yangtze stages, so-called, and the shipment and delivery of goods by steamers is permitted there under the new Customs regulations promulgated in 1877, for that object. But so many difficulties are connected with the working of these regulations that as yet the China Merchants Co. has found it impossible to avail of the privilege.

The distance from Shasze to Ichang is 83 nautical miles which, favoured by the usual up-river breeze, it took us a little over three days to accomplish. On the morning of the second day, I first noticed boulders covering the sand-flats and this evidence of our approach to the mountains put me in high spirits after the long monotony of the dreary mud flats I had hitherto been traversing. Above this the river quickly changed its character and from a huge ditch with perpendicular walls of crumbling mud became transformed into the semblance of what we usually understand by a river in Europe;—a clear blue stream with clean gravelly banks along which one could walk with comfort and pleasure, with high ground in the near distance. The dejected looking hamlets of mud and wattle, temporary erections which have to be removed each summer, with no vestige of vegetation near them and which are the sole signs of human activity visible to a traveller on the river in winter, gave place to substantial villages embowered in groves of willow and fruit-trees, these latter bursting into blossom. The winter wheat which, lower down, was only just appearing above the ground, was here,

already in early March, over a foot high, the shelter of the distant mountains inducing a milder climate. Soon the lower spurs of the hills themselves reached to the bank and on the third day we coasted for some distance under a veritable sandstone cliff 40 feet in height. Thence we sailed past the walled city of Itu 20 miles from Ichang, to the Tiger Teeth gorge, where the hills are at length throughout conterminous with the banks. This gorge, which is situated 10 miles below Ichang consists of a low range of conglomerate, through which a channel has been probably eroded by the river. The walls of the gorge, which is only a mile long, are vertical for about 200 feet only, steep hills rising from them some 500 feet higher. The conglomerate of which they appear to be entirely composed is coarse and very hard. Ichang itself, situated on the left bank, is built upon a ledge of conglomerate, formerly an island submerged in the summer floods, curiously undermined in places, the actual site of the city being quite level. At the back is a depression now occupied with paddy fields and behind this the ground rises gradually to a height of 100 feet at a mile's distance: the whole is entirely covered with a thick eruption of ancient grass-covered grave-mounds. Below the conglomerate ledge there extends, in winter, nearly half way across the river, a level sand-flat forming the anchorage of the port. The right bank is steep to and even now, in winter, a three-knot current runs under it: in summer the current there often attains a velocity of seven knots. Upon this bank sandstone and conglomerate hills alternate in an unexpected manner, the former being of pyramidal form and the latter, though almost equally steep, exhibiting more rounded outlines. Immediately opposite Ichang is a striking isolated pyramidal hill, 600 feet high, its steepest side descending in an almost vertical cliff sheer into the deep water at its base. This picturesque but obtrusive object is a sad blow to the complacency of the good people of Ichang. It has the effect, so the geomancers say, of conveying the wealth of the place into the pockets of the strangers who come there and of

preventing its accumulation in the hands of the poverty stricken natives. But a remedy has at last been found and thirty thousand taels have been collected wherewith to "pu" or "supplement" the deficient Fengshui. On the rise behind the town a three-storied temple, which promises to be an unique work of its kind, is being erected. Let us hope it will not have the effect of preventing any unfortunate stranger who may now go to tempt fortune in Ichang from attaining his desires!

After spending two days at this retired spot, investigating the curious otter fisheries and enjoying the hospitality of the genial Commissioner of Customs, I proceeded on my voyage up the gorges proper. The first gorge commences 5 miles above Ichang and is known to foreigners as the Ichang gorge and to the Chinese as the "Hsi-ling-hsia" or Gorge of the Western Mountains. The reach here is in winter fully half a mile wide and doubtless was once much wider, the whole of the low land on the left bank being once probably under water when the aspect would have been even more lakelike than now, when in summer the width just below the gorge is little less than a mile. Expression seems to have been given to this condition in the district name of Ichang-fu which is "Tung-hu-hsien" or "district of the Eastern Lake" Tracking up this reach along the left bank, no signs of the approaching gorge are witnessed and one would imagine oneself in a lake with high land on the left hand and in face (by which, of course, the mountains, through which the gorge is cleft, are hidden) and low, gently undulating country on the right. Suddenly we come to a split in the hill on the left and the entrance to the gorge is before us and we look down a narrow water alley with walls of limestone rising to pinacles of 3,000 feet on either side. Through this gate, which is about 400 yards wide, the whole body of water from Szechuen and the country beyond pours forth into the lake-like expanse below. The contrast is inexpressibly grand. We

suddenly leave the brawling rapid and find a still, deep current without a ripple on its surface, flowing with majestic slowness through a bottomless chasin, and the gloom and the dead silence add immeasurably to the imposing grandeur of the scene. As one penetrates the gorge, which is about 10 miles long and which takes a sharp rectangular turn near its upper end, one has leisure to observe the fantastic outline of the mountain peaks which are composed of pure white limestone. The first entrance into the gorge produces an impression such as one experiences once in a lifetime.



APPENDICES

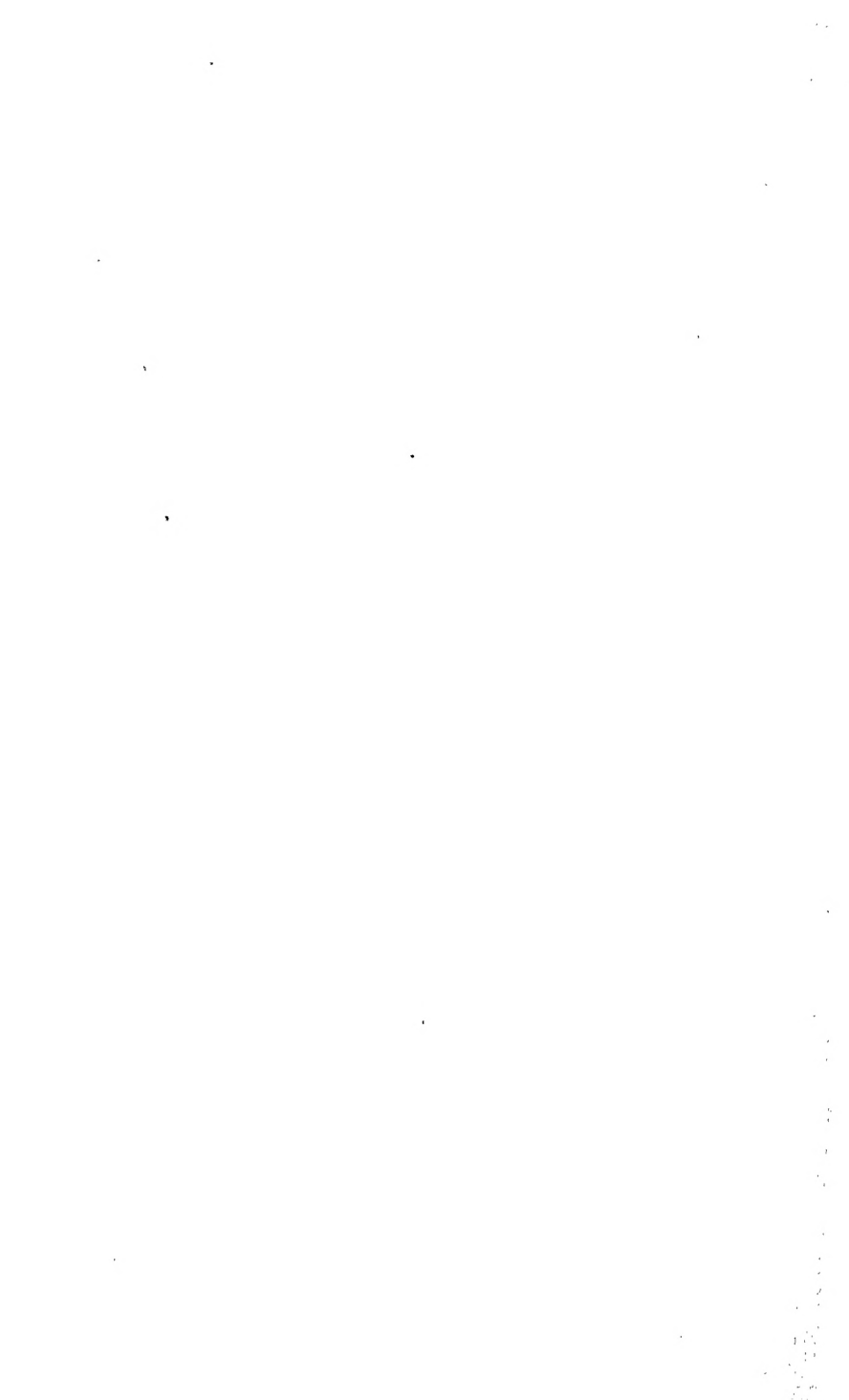
TO THE

JOURNAL OF THE CHINA BRANCH

OF THE

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

FOR THE YEAR 1883.



APPENDIX I.

LIST OF MEMBERS,

Corrected up to 30th September 1884.

HONORARY.

His Majesty LEOPOLD II., King of the Belgians.

Alcock, Sir Rutherford, K.C.B., London.

Hart, Sir Robert, K.C.M.G., Peking.

Legge, Rev. J., D.D., L.L.D., Oxford.

Medhurst, Sir Walter H., K.C.B., London.

Parkes, Sir Harry S., K.C.B., K.C.M.G., Peking.

Prjevalsky, Col. N., St. Petersburg.

Richthofen, Baron Ferdinand von, Leipzig.

Seward, The Hon. George F., U.S.

Shadwell, Admiral Sir Charles F. A., K.C.B., Melksham, Wilts.

Wade, Sir Thomas F., K.C.B., London.

Wylie, Alex., Esq., London.

Yule, Col. H., C.B., London.

CORRESPONDING.

Bastian, Prof. Dr. A., Berlin.
 Bretschneider, E., Esq., M.D., St. Petersburg.
 Cox, Rev. Josiah.
 Delaplace, Mgr. L. G., Peking.
 Edkins, Rev. J., D.D., Peking.
 Fritsche, H. Esq., PH. D., St. Petersburg.
 Fryer, John, Esq., Shanghai.
 Giles, Herbert A., Esq.
 *Gabelentz, Professor, Geo. von de,
 Gordon, Col. C. G., C.B.
 Hance, H. F., Esq., PH. D., Whampoa.
 Happer, Rev. A. P., D.D., Canton.
 Hepburn, J. C., Esq., M.D., Yokohama.
 John, Rev. Griffith, Hankow.
 Keischke, Dr. Ito, Tokio.
 Kreitner, Captain G., Chevalier de
 Lindau, wirkl. Leg.-Rath Dr. R., Berlin.
 Lockhart, W., Esq., M.D., London.
 Macgowan, D. J., Esq., M.D., Wenchow.
 Martin, Rev. W. A. P., D.D., LL.D., Peking.
 McCartee, D. B., Esq., M.D., New York.
 McClatchie, Rev., Thos., M.A., London.
 Moule, Right Rev. G. E., D.D., Hangchow.
 Muirhead, Rev. W., Shanghai.
 Rondot, Natalis, Esq., Lyons.
 Schereschewsky, Right Rev. S. I. J., D.D.
 Széchenyi, Count Béla, Zinkendorf, Hungary.
 Williamson, Rev. A., LL.D.

* Elected since the 1st of January, 1884.

MEMBERS.

- Acheson, James, Esq.
 Agar, Luis d' Esq.
 Alford, R. G., Esq.
 Allen, E. L. B., Esq.
 Allen, H. J. Esq.
 Anderson, G. C., Esq.
 Andersen, N. P., Esq.
 Arnoux, Count G. d'
 Ayrton, W. S., Esq.
 Baber, E. C., Esq.
 Ball, J. Dyer, Esq.
 Bamford, Rev. A. J.
 Birt, Wm., Esq.
 *Booth, A. G., Capt.
 Bredon, M. Boyd, Esq.
 Bristow, H. B., Esq.
 Brosche, H., Esq.
 †Brown, J. McLeavy, Esq.
 Bushell, S. W., Esq., M.D.
 Butcher, Very Rev. C.H., D.D.
 Buttles, Prof. E.K.
 Cooper, W. M., Esq.
 Cordes, August C., Esq.
 Coughtrie, J. B., Esq.
 Deighton-Braysher, C., Esq.
 Dennys, H. L., Esq.
 Dmitrevsky, P. A., Esq.
 Dodd, J., Esq.
 Dowdall, C., Esq.
 Drew, E. B., Esq.
 Faragó, E., Esq.
 Ferguson, His Ex., J. H.
 Fergusson, T. T., Esq.
 Fisher, H. J., Esq.
 Forbes, F. B., Esq.
 Frater, Alex., Esq.
 *Gabriel, H.I.M. Ger. V. Consul.
 Gardner, C. T., Esq.
 Gil de Uribarri, Ramiro, Esq.
 Giquel, P., Esq.
 †Glover, G. B., Esq.
 Goldsmith, B., Esq.
 Grant, P. V., Esq.,
 Guppy, H. B., Esq., M.B.
 Haas, J., Esq.
 Hanbury, T., Esq.
 Henderson, Ed., Esq., M.D.
 Henderson, J., Esq.
 Henry, A., Esq., M.D.
 Hippisley, A. E., Esq.
 Hirth, F., Esq., PH. D.
 Hjoubery, E., Esq.
 Hobson, H. F., Esq.
 Hoetink, B., Esq.
 Hosie, Alex., Esq., M.A.
 How, A. J., Esq.
 Hübbe, P. G., Esq.
 Imbault-Huart, C., Esq.
 Jamieson, G., Esq.

* Elected since last issue of list of members (31st December, 1883.)

† Life Member,

Jansen, D. C., Esq.	Rhein, J., Esq.
Johnson, F. B., Esq.	Rocher, E., Esq.
Johnston, J., Esq., M.D.	*Rocher, L., Esq.
.	*Ruberg, Waldemar, Esq.
Kingsmill, T. W., Esq.	Russell, The Hon. James
Kleinwächter, F., Esq.	
Kleinwächter, G. H. J., Esq.	Sampson, T., Esq.
Kopsch, H., Esq.	Samson, J., Esq.
	Saunders, W., Esq.
Little, A. J., Esq.	Scherzer, F., Esq.
Little, L. S., Esq., M.D.	Schultz, Capt. C. A.
Low, E. G., Esq.	Schulze, F. W., Esq.
	Seckendorff, Baron Edm. von
Macintyre, Rev. John.	Shinagawa, E., Esq.
Mertz, C., Esq., PH. D.	Slevogt, M., Esq.
Möllendorff, O. F. von, Esq.,	Southey, T. S., Esq.
PH. D.	Starkey, Reg. D., Esq.
Möllendorff, P. G. von, Esq.	Streich, K. I., Esq.
Morrison, G. J., Esq.	Stripling, A. B., Esq.
	Sutherland, H., Esq.
*Nocentini, L., Esq.	*Styan F. W., Esq.
*Nully, R. de Esq.	
Nye, Gideon, Esq.	Tanner, P., Esq.
	Tata, D. B., Esq.
Owen, Rev. G. S.	Toda, E., Esq.
Parker, E. H., Esq.	Vissière, A., Esq.
Paterson, J. W., Esq.	
Perry, W. W., Esq.	Washbrook, W. A., Esq.
Pichon, L., Esq., M.D.	Watters, T., Esq.
Pitman, J., Esq.	Wetmore, W. S., Esq.
Plancy, V. Collin de Esq.	White, F. W., Esq.
Pollock, John, Esq., M.D.	Wicking, H., Esq.
	Wilcox, R. C., Esq.
*Ramsay H. F., Esq.	Wood, A. G., Esq.
Rejd, David, Esq.	
Reinsdorf, F., Esq.	Youd, F., Esq.

* Elected since last issue of list of members (31st December, 1883.)

APPENDIX II.

MEMBERS OF THE COUNCIL,

30th September 1884.

E. B. DREW, Esq., *President.*

THOS: W. KINGSMILL, Esq.,
F. HIRTH, Esq., PH. D. } *Vice-Presidents.*

E. ROCHER, Esq., *Hon. Sec. & Treasurer.*

Captain G. VON KREITNER, *Hon. Librarian.*

F. W. STYAN, Esq., *Hon. Curator of Museum.*

G. JAMES MORRISON, Esq.,
T. S. SOUTHEY, Esq.,
M. SLEVOGT, Esq.,
C. DEIGHTON-BRAYSHER, Esq., } *Councillors.*

APPENDIX III.

REVISED RULES

OF THE

CHINA BRANCH

OF THE

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Instituted 24th September 1857.

Passed at a General Meeting held on the 7th November 1882.

1.—NAME AND OBJECTS.

1. The Name of the Society shall be "THE CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY," instead of, as formerly, THE NORTH-CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

2. The objects of the Society shall be—

The investigation of subjects connected with China and the neighbouring countries.

The holding of Meetings at which papers relating to such subjects shall be read and discussed.

The issuing of a Journal and other publications.

The maintenance of a Library and Museum.

11.—MEMBERSHIP.

3. The Society shall consist of "MEMBERS," "CORRESPONDING MEMBERS," and "HONORARY MEMBERS."

4. Each Candidate for election as a MEMBER must be proposed and seconded by two Members of the Society, and his name together with those of his proposer and seconder must be sent to the Secretary, who will submit the proposal to the COUNCIL at their next Meeting. The COUNCIL shall decide upon the admission or rejection of Candidates, and the names of those elected shall be announced at the GENERAL MEETING next ensuing.

5. HONORARY MEMBERS and CORRESPONDING MEMBERS must be proposed by the Council at a GENERAL MEETING, and elected at the GENERAL MEETING next ensuing.

6. The Secretary shall send to each newly elected Member of the Society (of any class) a Certificate of Membership together with a copy of the Rules of the Society and a List of Members.

7. The Subscriptions to the Society shall be as follows—
 MEMBERS, resident in Shanghai.....\$10 per annum.
 „ non-resident „\$ 5 „

Any of the above subscriptions may be compounded for by one payment of \$50.

HONORARY MEMBERS and CORRESPONDING MEMBERS pay no subscription.

8. The first annual payment of MEMBERS elected in November and December shall be considered to extend to the *second* 31st of December following their election.

9. Resident MEMBERS, on leaving Shanghai, may have their names transferred to the class of non-residents; but any Member who remains in Shanghai for six months during any year shall pay his subscription as a resident MEMBER.

10. All subscriptions shall be payable in advance, and any MEMBER whose subscription for any year is unpaid on the 30th of June of the following year shall be considered to have resigned his membership; but this rule may be suspended in any particular case by a vote of the COUNCIL.

11. MEMBERS desiring to withdraw from the Society shall continue to be liable for any sums due by them to the Society including their annual subscription for the year in which they signify their intention to withdraw.

III.—OFFICERS.

12. The Officers of the Society shall be—

A President,

A Senior and a Junior Vice-President,

An Honorary Secretary,

An Honorary Treasurer,

An Honorary Librarian,

An Honorary Curator,

but any one Officer may perform the duties attaching to two offices.

IV.—COUNCIL.

13. The COUNCIL shall consist of the Officers of the Society for the current year, and four Members of Council.

14. The Officers and Members of Council for the current year shall be elected at the ANNUAL MEETING and shall hold office until the next ANNUAL MEETING; but vacancies among the officers or Members of Council occurring during the year shall be filled up by a vote of the remaining Officers and Members of Council, provided that in case of the death of the President his functions shall be discharged by the Senior Vice-President until the next ANNUAL MEETING, or in case of the President's absence until his return.

15. The Duties of the COUNCIL shall be—

To administer the affairs, property, and trusts of the Society.

To decide upon the admission of Candidates as “MEMBERS.”

To propose HONORARY MEMBERS and CORRESPONDING MEMBERS for election.

To decide upon the eligibility of papers to be read before the General Meetings.

To select papers for publication in the Journal and to supervise the printing and distribution thereof.

To select and purchase books, specimens, &c., for the Library and Museum.

To accept or decline donations or gifts on behalf of the Society.

To present to the Society at the expiration of their term of office Reports of the proceedings and condition of the various departments, and of the Society generally.

And generally, to do such things as may be required for the welfare and proper management of the Society, and to make and enforce such bye-laws as may be necessary for carrying out the above requirements.

16. The COUNCIL shall meet for the transaction of business once a month, or oftener, if necessary, and at all such Meetings five shall be a *quorum*. In case of an equality of votes on any question the Chairman of the Meeting shall have a second or casting vote.

17. The Hon. Treasurer may pay the monthly Museum account, which must be signed by the Hon. Curator, and he may on his own authority pay any incidental expenses not exceeding fifty dollars between any two Council Meetings, reporting the same to the COUNCIL at their next Meeting.

18. As early as possible in each year, and in any case before the 31st January, the Hon. Treasurer shall prepare and submit to the COUNCIL statements of the Receipts and Disbursements of the Society for the preceding year, ending on the 31st December, and in such statements the receipts and disbursements on account of the Museum shall be kept distinct from the other receipts and disbursements.

V.—MEETINGS.

19. The ANNUAL MEETING shall be held as early in each year as practicable, and in any case not later than the 15th February. At this Meeting the outgoing COUNCIL shall present to the Society the Report and financial statements of the Hon. Treasurer, and the Reports of the various departments prepared by the Officers having control of them; and the officers and Members of Council for the ensuing year shall be elected.

20. GENERAL MEETINGS shall be held, when practicable, once a month, or oftener, if expedient, for the transaction of business, the reading and discussing of papers approved by the COUNCIL, and conversation on topics connected with the general objects of the Society. Whenever practicable, notice of the subjects intended to be introduced for discussion by any Member of the Society shall be handed to the Secretary before the Meeting.

21. At all Meetings of the Society the Chairman shall be entitled to a second or casting vote.

22. Visitors may be admitted to the Meetings of the Society, but no visitors shall be allowed to address the Meeting, except by invitation of the Chairman.

VI.—PUBLICATIONS.

23. A Journal shall be published, when practicable, every year under the supervision of the COUNCIL. It shall

comprise a selection of the papers read before the Society, the Reports of the COUNCIL, of the Hon. Treasurer and other Officers of the Society, and such other original matter as the COUNCIL shall deem expedient to publish.

24. Every MEMBER who has paid his subscription for the current year, and every HONORARY MEMBER and CORRESPONDING MEMBER shall be entitled to a copy of the Journal for the year, deliverable at the place of issue, and to a copy of other publications directed for distribution.

25. The COUNCIL shall have power to present copies of the Journal and of other publications to other Societies and to distinguished individuals, and the remaining copies shall be sold at such prices as the COUNCIL may from time to time direct.

26. Twenty copies of each paper published in the Journal shall be placed at the disposal of the Author, and the COUNCIL shall have power to sanction the publication in a separate form of papers or documents laid before the Society.

27. All papers accepted by the Society shall become the property of the Society, unless the Council allow the right of property to be specially reserved by the contributors.

VII.—AMENDMENTS.

28. Amendments to these Rules must be proposed in writing to the COUNCIL who shall, after notice given, lay them before a General Meeting of the Society. A Committee of resident MEMBERS shall thereupon be appointed in conjunction with the Council to report on the proposed Amendments to the GENERAL MEETING next ensuing, when a decision may be taken.

APPENDIX IV.

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

RULES FOR THE ISSUE OF BOOKS FROM THE LIBRARY.*

- RULE I.—The Library is open daily from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 4 to 7.30 p.m., Sundays and holidays excepted.
- RULE II.—The circulation of the books is under the control of the Committee of the Shanghai Library.
- RULE III.—Books are issued by the Librarian of the Shanghai Library only. Members are not allowed to pass them one to another, nor to lend them to non-members.
- RULE IV.—Members are not to have more than *three* works at a time, nor keep any books longer than 21 days.
- RULE V.—Works of reference and certain rare and valuable books are not to be taken out of the Library Building, nor are Scientific Journals and Periodicals circulated until the volumes are completed and bound.
- RULE VI.—When the time allowed for the perusal of a work has expired, it must be returned to the Library within 24 hours after the receipt of a notice that it is required at the Library, or a fine of half a dollar per day will be exacted.

* The Library is in charge of Mr. and Mrs. GALE, Librarians to the Shanghai Library, Upper Yüen-ming-yüen Road, No. 1. Periodicals and new books received by the Society are exhibited in the Reading Room of the Shanghai Library.

RULE VII.—Members are responsible for the careful preservation and safe return of all books issued to them, and they will be required to make good any loss or damage in these respects.

RULE VIII.—If a work or any portion of it should be lost or damaged, defaced by writing or otherwise injured, the member to whom it was issued will be responsible for its whole cost whatever that may be.

RULE IX.—The infraction of any of these rules will be followed by the withdrawal from a member of his privilege of taking books out of the Library, and the payment of all penalties or other amounts due will be enforced in any way that may be thought fit.

RULE X.—The Council of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society may at any time call in all books and may cease to issue them for such periods as the interests of the Society may require.

For the purposes of rules IV and VI, each volume of the Transactions of any Learned Society or similar publication shall be counted as one work, but under rule VIII a member may be called upon to replace a whole series unless the volumes can be obtained separately.





JOURNAL
OF THE
CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,
FOR THE YEAR 1884.

NEW SERIES, Vol. XIX, Part I.

Agents for the Sale of the Society's Publications:

SHANGHAI AND HONGKONG.—MESSRS. KELLY & WALSH.

YOKOHAMA.—MESSRS. KELLY & CO.

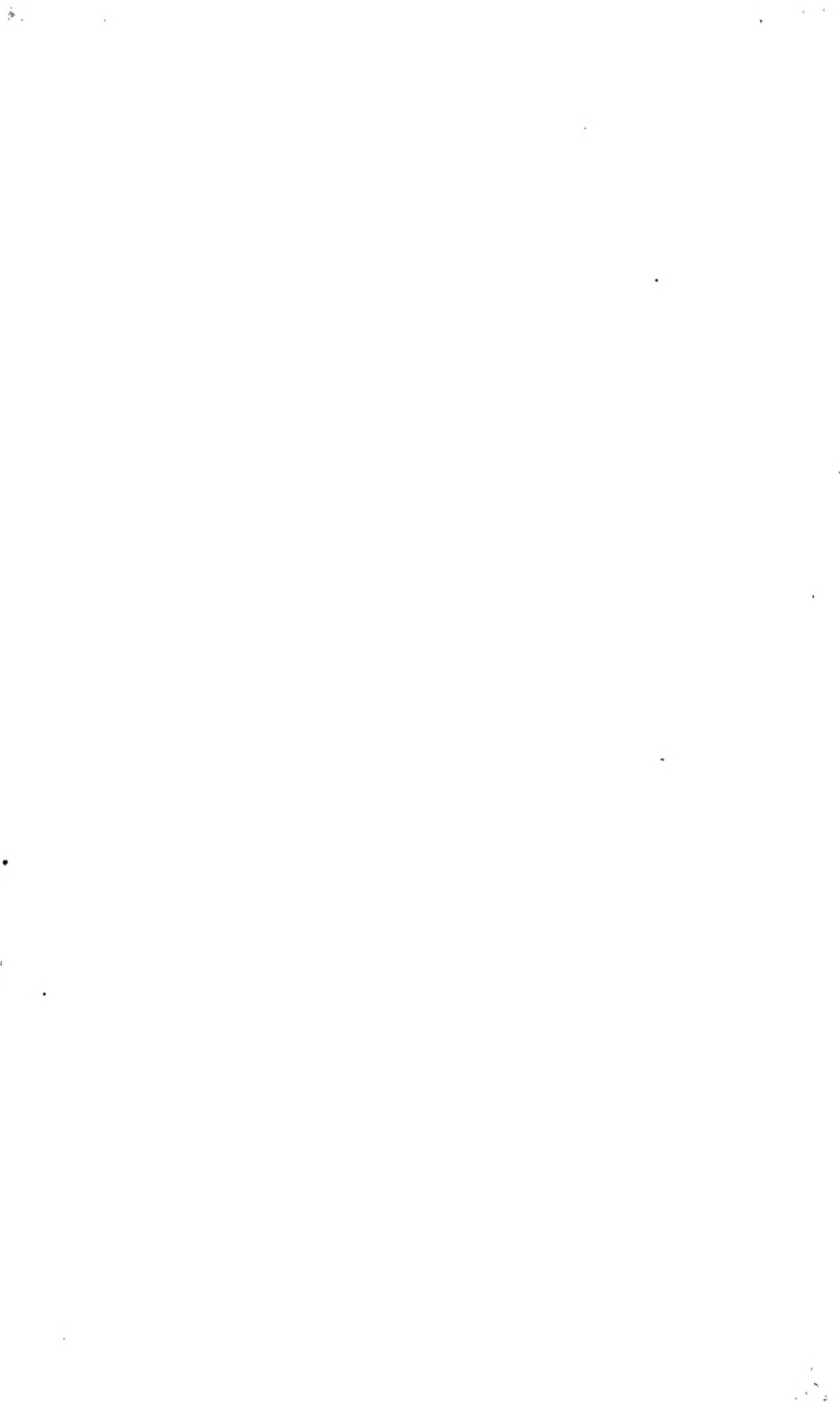
LONDON.—MESSRS. TRÜBNER & CO., 57 AND 59, LUDGATE HILL.

PARIS.—M. ERNEST LEROUX, RUE BONAPARTE, 28.

SHANGHAI:

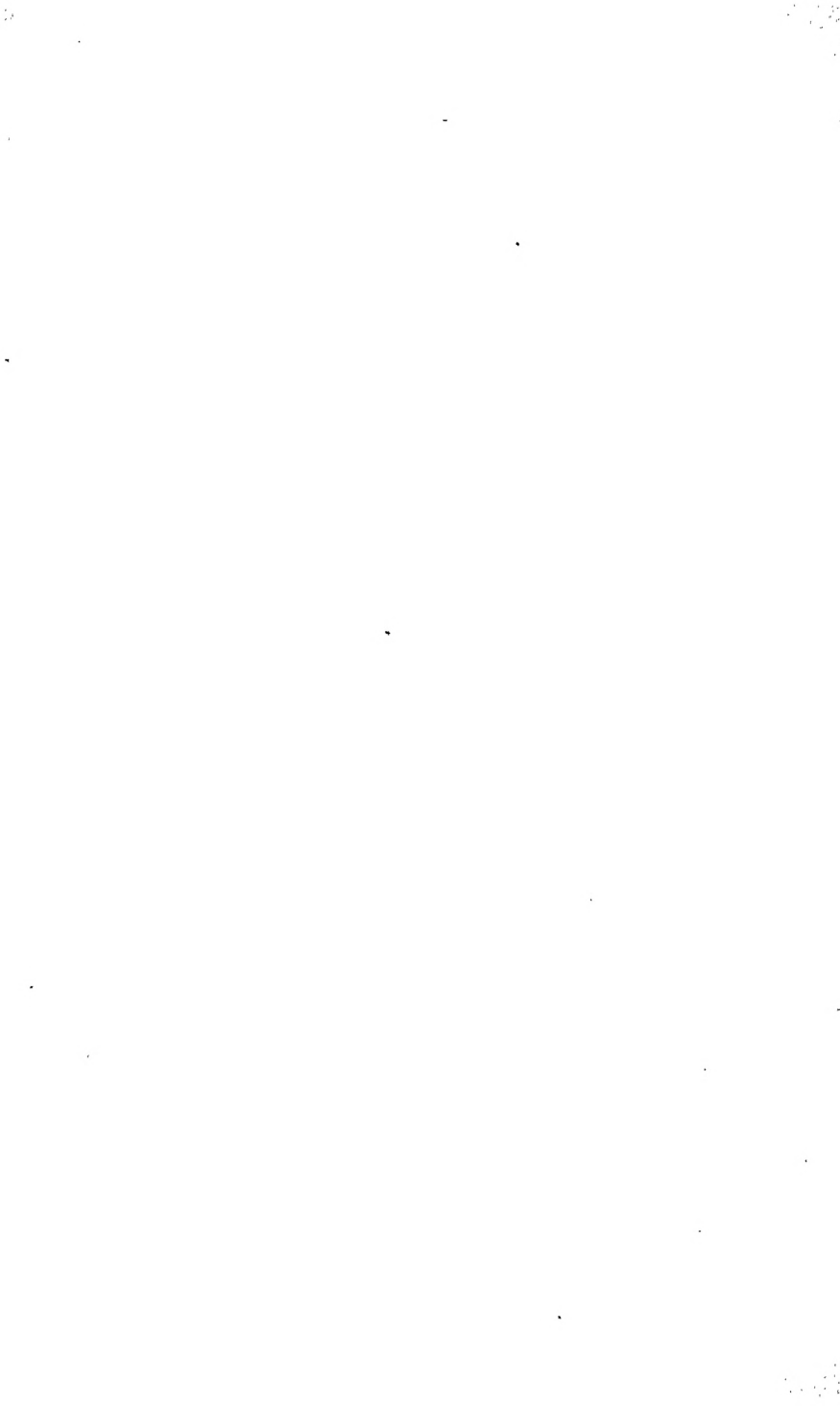
Published by the SOCIETY.

1885.



CONTENTS.

	<i>Page.</i>
Report of the Council for the year 1884	I
Treasurer's Report and Accounts	VI
Curator's Report	IX
ARTICLE I.—Animal, Fossil, Mineral, and Vegetable Products of the Ichang Consular District. By C. T. GARDNER, Esquire, H. B. M.'s Consul	1
ARTICLE II.—A Journey in Chêkiang. By E. H. PARKER, Esquire, H. B. M.'s Acting Consul	27
ARTICLE III.—A Journey in Fukien, with Map. By E. H. PARKER, Esquire, H. B. M.'s Acting Consul	54
ARTICLE IV.—A Journey from Foochow to Wênchow through Central Fukien, (with Map opposite page 55). By E. H. PARKER, Esquire, H. B. M.'s Acting Consul	75
ARTICLE V.—A Buddhist Sheet-tract, translated, with Notes, by the Right Revd. Bishop G. E. MOULE	94
ARTICLE VI.—Trade Routes to Western China. By ALEX. HOSIE, Esquire, of H. B. M.'s Consular Service	103
Errata... ..	115



REPORT

OF THE

COUNCIL OF THE CHINA BRANCH

OF THE

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,

FOR THE YEAR 1884.

Officers.—At the Annual Meeting held on the 14th March 1884, the following gentlemen were elected Office-Bearers for the year:—

E. B. DREW, *President.*

T. W. KINGSMILL, }
F. HIRTH, PH. D. } *Vice-Presidents.*

E. ROCHER, *Hon. Sec. and Treasurer.*

LIEUT. G. VON KREITNER, *Hon. Librarian.*

F. W. STYAN, *Hon. Curator of Museum.*

G. JAMES MORRISON,
MAX. SLEVOGT,
C. DEIGHTON-BRAYSHER,
T. S. SOUTHEY, } *Councillors.*

There has been no change in the staff of Office-Bearers during the year, excepting that Capt. von Kreitner on the 1st December 1884 resigned the office of Librarian, owing to his transfer to Yokohama. The vacancy has not since been filled.

Meetings and Papers.—Thirteen General Meetings of the Society were held during 1884, and the following papers—thirteen in number—were read:—

1.—A Buddhist Sheet-tract, with an Apologue of Human Life, translated, with Notes, by the Right Rev. Bishop G. E. Moule of Hangchow; 22nd January.

2.—The Claims of the Chinese as the Inventors of Gunpowder and Fire-arms, by Dr. D. J. Macgowan of Wénchow; 14th March.

3.—Trade Routes in Western China, by Alex. Hosie, Esquire, of H.B.M.'s Consular service, Chungking, Szechuen; 25th March.

4.—A Journey in Chêkiang—First Part—by E. H. Parker, Esquire, H.B.M.'s Acting Consul at Wênchow; 28th March.

5.—The ancient Trade Routes between China and the Roman Empire (Ta-ts'in), by F. Hirth, Ph. D., of Shanghai; 4th April.

6.—At the meeting of 11th April, no paper was read.

7.—A Journey in Chêkiang—Second Part—by E. H. Parker, Esquire; 16th April.

8.—Un Poëte Chinois du XVIII Siècle, Yüan Tseu-ts'ai, sa Vie, et ses Œuvres, by C. Imbault-Huart, Vice-Consul of France; 20th October.

9.—A journey in Fukien,—Wênchow to Foochow, near the sea coast, by E. H. Parker, Esquire; 27th October.

10.—A journey through Central Fukien,—Foochow to Wênchow, by E. H. Parker, Esquire; 10th November.

11.—The Kaaba, or Great Shrine at Mecca, as described by Chinese,—with notes on the old Arab Trade and remarks on Mahomedanism, by H. Kopsch, Esquire, Commissioner of Customs at Ningpo; 24th November.

12.—The Serica of Ptolemy and its Inhabitants, by T. W. Kingsmill; 2nd December.

13.—The Navigation of the Söul River, Corea; by Capt. F. W. Schultze; and the Early Use of Telephones in China, by Dr. D. J. Macgowan; 15th December.

Membership.—During the year 8 new members have been added to the Society's roll; and the number of members on the 31st December 1884 was as follows:—honorary 13, corresponding 28, and ordinary 120. The roll of a year previous (31st Dec. 1883) bore 14 honorary, 27 corresponding, and 138 ordinary members.

This falling off in membership means merely that the names of many persons have been removed from our list, who from long absence or other similar reasons have in point of fact ceased to be members, without actually resigning.

The Council regrets having to record the death of two members, viz: Monsignor de la Place, and Mr. Geo. Carter Stent, both well

known to all students of subjects pertaining to China and the Chinese Language.

Four members have resigned.

Lease to Shanghai Library.—On the 24th of December 1884 the Agreement between the Asiatic Society and the Shanghai Library was renewed, whereby the Asiatic Society engages to continue to let the East Wing of the Society's building to the Library for the 10 years, beginning 1st January 1883 and terminating on the 31st December 1892, at an annual rental of 100 Shanghai Taels. The deed, dated on the 24th December, was signed by Messrs. Drew, Kingsmill, and E. Rocher, as representatives of the Council, and by Messrs. P. J. Hughes and T. Latham for the Library.

Journals: Reprints.—Of the three early Journals which were to be reprinted, one has been published, viz: New Series V, 1868. A second (Old series, No. II May, 1859) is ready for distribution and sale: 450 copies have been prepared, at a total cost of \$178.20. The third reprint has not yet been undertaken; but it has been found that it will cost \$351.60 to reprint 450 copies. This journal contains a very large number of wood-cuts,—hence its high cost.

Journal for 1883—The Journal for 1883, 226 pages, contains eight articles, besides Reports, Accounts, Lists of Members, Rules, and a List of Birds in the Shanghai Museum. The number of copies printed is 468 (not including 20 author's copies), and the cost is \$482. It is ready for distribution and sale.

Journal for 1884.—The journal for 1884, First Part, about 130 pages is nearly ready for issue. It is to contain, besides Reports, Accounts, and the like, six articles. The first is entitled Animal, Fossil, Mineral and Vegetable Productions of the Ichang Consular District, by Consul C. T. Gardner. (This paper was not read before the Society, because its character was not considered to be of a kind suitable for reading.) Then follow the three articles by Mr. Parker descriptive of his journeys in Chékiang and Fukien, Bishop Moule's Description and Translation of a Buddhist Tract, and Mr. Hosie's paper on Trade Routes in Western China, all which articles were read before the Society in the Spring of 1884. Of this volume 500 copies will have been prepared, besides 20 author's copies.

Unpublished Papers.—The paper by Dr. Hirth entitled “The ancient Trade Routes between Ta-ts’in and the Chinese Empire” is not to be published in our journal, as it forms part of his study entitled “China and the Roman Orient,” which will shortly leave the press as an independent work. Respecting the remaining papers named at the beginning of this Report as having been read in 1884, it will be for the incoming Council to determine as to the publication of all or a portion of them as a Second Part in the Journal for 1884.

Shanghai Museum.—The Council calls the attention of the Society to the work accomplished during the year in the Museum: many old specimens have been replaced by new, public attention has been called to the want of more specimens of birds, and this call has been well responded to; and new show cases are being put up. The location of the Museum, as is universally admitted, is not such as to attract the public to it: but the present time is not a favorable one for bringing forward proposals for any radical changes respecting this institution.

Society's Finances.—As to the finances of the Society, the showing at this moment is not at first sight a very good one; but it need only be stated that the present want of a larger balance in the form of money is due to the fact that this balance is partly represented just now by an exceptional amount of books,—i.e. the new Journals, and the Reprint, all as yet undistributed—by the sale of which funds will soon be again realised. We have good reason to expect a remittance from Trübner & Co. in April for journals sold; and we are looking to a like settlement with M. Leroux, the Paris bookseller.

Society's Library.—During the year 1884, but very few additions have been made to the Library; and the condition and requirements of this department ought, we think, to receive the special attention of the incoming Council. It is remarkable and no less a matter of regret, that our excellent library is so little used.

Want of public interest in meetings.—The fact is beyond question that little or no interest in our meetings is taken by the general public in Shanghai. During 1884 the meetings were held with

great regularity, both in the Spring and Autumn sessions, and they were freely advertised. The effect of these measures was, however, only insignificant. The questions whether the Society ought or ought not to endeavour to attract the public to our meetings, and, if so, how this is to be brought about, are for the new Council to deal with.

Subscriptions in arrear.—The only remaining matter to be referred to is the difficulty of obtaining from many of our members the regular and prompt payment of their subscriptions.

Possible usefulness of the Society.—It is beyond question that the China Branch of the Asiatic Society is an institution which foreign residents in China could ill do without. But it is equally beyond question that the value of the Society is not at this moment sufficiently appreciated as a means and a stimulus to the study of Sinology.



Treasurer's Report.

Gentlemen,

In submitting to you the accounts of the society for the year just ended, I have much pleasure in being able to report favorably on the financial condition of the Society.

You will see from the enclosed statement that on the 1st of January 1884 the Society was credited with the sum of Tls. 188.65, and that during the year the receipts amounted to Tls. 899.76, derived from Subscriptions, the sale of re-printed Journals and rent from the Shanghai Library.

Though the income is more than last year, the Expenditures have been unusually heavy, amounting to Tls. 793.17. The cost of printing of journals for 1883-1884, wood-cuts, etc., amounted to Tls. 639.76. Out of this sum Tls. 429.51 have been paid, leaving a balance due of Tls. 210.25.

Your treasurer regrets to say that the uncollected subscriptions amount to \$475.00, and it is not anticipated that these arrears will bring more than about \$250.00.

As regards the Museum, the income for last year including the liberal grants of the English and French Municipal Councils, amounted to Tls. 684.36 and the expenditures to Tls. 652.66, leaving a balance of Tls. 31.70 which has been carried to the new account. I am glad to say that the funds have admitted of two years' interest being paid on the Loan made by the Recreation Fund, thus leaving the interest due at date only two years in arrears.

E. ROCHER,

Hon. Secretary & Treasurer.

Shanghai, 1st February, 1885.

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1884.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
Tls.	cts.	Tls.	cts.
To Balance from last year's Account	188	By Assistant Librarian	60
" Subscriptions for 1882-1883-1884	511	" Noronha & Sons, 500 Reports...	32
" Sale of Journals	93	" Stationary and Sundry Printing	11
" Received from Subscribers...	100	" Sun Fire Insurance Renewal Policies	37
" Rent from Shanghai Library	6	" Printing of Journals 83-84	432
" Interest on current Account	53	" Repairing Roof	81
		" Reducing Maps	11
		" Sundry Postage & Collectory Subscription	11
		" Advertisements in 3 papers	104
		" Municipal and other Taxes	6
		" Chinese Government Ground rent	1
		" Balance	109
	899 76		899 76

E. & O. E.

E. ROCHER,
Hon. Secretary & Treasurer.

Audited and found correct.

Signed. T. S. SOUTHEY.
MAX. SLEVOGT.

SHANGHAI, 31st January, 1885.

SHANGHAI MUSEUM.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1884.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
Tls.	cts.	Tls.	cts.
To Balance from last Account	77 83	By Shanghai Library Rent to 31st Dec. 1884	150 00
" Municipal Council Grant, English	500 00	" Taxidermist's wages 12 months, \$30=	263 88
" " French	100 00	" Coolie's " 12 " @ 5	43 98
" Interest on Current Account	6 53	" Sundries	33 10
		" Fire Insurance	5 00
		" Municipal and other Taxes	6 70
		" Interest on Loan from Recreation Fund	150 00
		" Balance "	31 70
	684 36		684 36

E. & O. E.

E. ROCHER,
Hon. Secretary & Treasurer.

Added and found correct.
Signed, T. S. SOUTHEY.
M. SLEVOGT.

SHANGHAI, 31st January, 1885.

Curator's Report.

To the President and Council of the

CHINA BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Gentlemen,

In continuation of my report dated 30th September last, I have now the pleasure to add that the work of renewing and improving the collection in the Museum has been proceeding satisfactorily during the last three months.

A list of specimens received during the period is appended.

I am glad to be able to state that a greater interest seems to be taken at present in the Museum than has been the case hitherto; and there is every hope that, as the collections increase in value, a larger share of support may be given to this institution by the public.

F. W. STYAN,
F.Z.S.

SHANGHAI MUSEUM.

SPECIMENS ADDED TO THE COLLECTION, OCTOBER 1ST TO DECEMBER 31ST, 1884.

SCIENTIFIC NAME.	ORDINARY NAME.	WHERE FROM	BY WHOM PRESENTED.
Gecinus Guerin.	Green Woodpecker.	Shanghai District.	J. P. da Silva.
Nettapus Coromandelianus.	Goose Teal.	Kinkiang.	F. W. Styan.
Cyanopoliis Cyanus.	Blue Magpie.	Shanghai District.	Do
Fregilus Graculus.	Chough.	Peking.	C. Wang.
Fringilla Canaria.	Canary.	Captivity.	P. A. Cordeiro.
Podiceps Minor.	Little Grebe.	Kinkiang.	F. W. Styan.
Upupa Epops.	Hoopoe.	Shanghai.	Dr. Burge.
Lanius Schach.	Schach's Shrike.	Shanghai District.	F. W. Styan.
Falco Peregrinus.	Peregrine Falcon.	Do.	P. McGregor Grant.
Grus Viridirostris.	White Crane.	Corea.	A. Stripling.
Mergus Albellus.	Smew.	Shanghai District.	A. J. Leach.
Emberiza Spodocephala.	Grey-headed Bunting.	Do.	F. W. Styan.
Alcedo Bengalensis.	Bengal King Fisher.	Do.	Do.
?	A Caterpillar.	Swatow.	H. Sage.
Vanellus Cristatus.	Peewit.	Shanghai District.	Capt. N. P. Andersen.
Caccabis Chukar.	Two Chukar (Chefoo) Par-	Chefoo.	<i>Purchased.</i>
Alanda Arvensis.	Skylark.	Shanghai District.	F. W. Styan.
Garrulax Perspicilatus	Masked Jay-thrush.	Do.	Do.
Accipiter Nisus.	Sparrow-hawk.	Do.	J. M. d'Oliveira.
Pelecanus Philippensis.	Philippine Pelican.	Wuhu.	C. A. Swanstrom.
Anas Zonorhyncha.	Yellow-nib Duck.	Woosung.	F. W. Styan.
	Fossil Wood.	Arizona.	D. C. Jansen.
Totanus Calidris.	Redshank.	Shanghai District.	W. H. Tottie.
Lycos Dauricus.	Pied Jackdaw.	Do.	J. M. d'Oliveira.
Mergus Merganser.	Goosander.	Do.	"
Meles Leptorynchus.	Badger.	Do.	F. W. Styan.
Hydropotes Inermis.	White variety River Deer.	Do.	<i>Purchased.</i>
Alanda	A Lark.	Do.	Do.
			Do.

JOURNAL
OF THE
CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

ARTICLE I.

ANIMAL, FOSSIL, MINERAL & VEGETABLE
PRODUCTS.

*Consular District of Ichang in the Province
of Hupeh, China.*

BY

CHRISTOPHER THOMAS GARDNER, Esq.,
H. B. M.'s Consul.

I.—ANIMAL PRODUCTS.

THE Ichang Consular District produces few animal products. Some are valuable and might be increased:

I.—The *Ateuchus* 蝼蛄 or Tumble Dung beetle, used as medicine.

II.—Bones of Tiger.—The Tiger is rarely found in this district. The bones are much valued by natives as medicine. The beast is welcomed here as it keeps down the number of wild pigs which are a great pest to the mountain farmers.

III.—Cicada.—The cast pupal shell of the Cicada 蟬退 is used as a medicine.

IV.—Furs of Leopards, the Golden Monkey, Fox, &c., are occasionally to be bought. A trade might be done in skins of Otters, which abound here, and are bred and domesticated for fishing purposes.

V.—Feathers here are thrown away; a trade might be done in them both for bedding and ornaments. Among beautifully plumed birds, I may mention the Reeves and Golden Pheasants, Tremminck's Tragopan, the Mandarin Duck, (*aix galericulata*), Kingfishers, the *Urocissa Sinensis*, &c.

VI.—Fish.—There is a great variety; I have only identified the carp and sturgeon.

VII.—Gallnuts of two kinds are produced here: 1. 女貞子 Gallnuts produced by an insect which feeds on the *Rhus Succedanea*. 2. 五倍子 Gallnuts of an insect feeding on the Sumach *Rhus semi-reata*; of the latter a large quantity is exported, via Hankow, to England.

VIII.—Hides.—The trade may extend. Till lately hides were wasted or sold for a trifle. Recently the demand for them in Hankow for the home market has caused them to be looked after.

IX.—Honey of very good quality is produced in this district, and sells for two pence to three pence a pound. It may become an export.

X.—Honeycomb used by the Chinese as a medicine.

XI.—Horns.—The trade in the horns of buffalo and oxen may extend if local markets develop.

XII.—Leather is prepared fairly well by the natives here. The export trade may increase.

XIII.—Musk from the Musk Deer is produced in small quantities at Ho-fêng-chow.

XIV.—Magpie Dung 五靈脂.—A medicine made of is prepared in this district. It is prized by the Chinese.

XV.—Pigs' Bristles.—A trade in this article might be developed.

XVI.—Porpoises abound. The natives do not attempt to utilize either the skin or oil.

XVII.—Scales of Pangolin 穿山甲.—The *Manis Javanica* exists in Ho-fêng-chow where a medicine prized by the Chinese is produced from the scales.

XVIII.—Silk.—The production both of Silk and Silk Piece Goods is tolerably active here. Of the piece goods almost all are locally consumed. Raw Silk, Waste Silk and Silk Cocoons from this district are beginning to be exported to England. Till lately Waste Silk was only used for caulking vessels, &c. The climate here is favorable both to

the mulberry and to the silk worm. The outturn of Silk, especially in the lowlands, might be increased.

XIX.—Snake Skins 蛇蛻 are here made into medicine.

XX.—Wax Yellow or Bees Wax might form an export.

XXI.—Wax White, made by an insect of the family of the Fulgoridæ of the Homoptera. A curious point in the production of White Wax is that the insect producing it has at different stages of the existence to be reared on two distinct trees. Most of the White Wax exported from this place is produced in Szechuan; a small quantity, which could be increased, is produced here.

XXII.—Wasp Nest—Used by Chinese as a medicine.

II.—FOSSILS.

Three kinds of Fossils produced in this district are staples of trade.

1. 寶塔石 Orthoceras.
2. 太極石 Ammonites.
3. 石燕 Not identified.

The Chinese call the first "Pagoda Stone." That found in slate at Nanchiehah, about 40 miles N.E. from the Consulate, is cut and polished, and is either framed as a picture or made into ornamental furniture.

The same holds good of a certain Fossil ammonite which is called "Kosmos Stone" from its resemblance to the Chinese symbol for the kosmos ②.

These Fossils do not appear in the trade returns.

The third kind of Fossil is called by the Chinese "Stone Swallows,"—it is ground down and used as a medicine.

III.—MINERAL PRODUCTS.

I.—Agates are found in many places near Ichang. They are very plentiful at Fêngpaoshan about 12 miles East of the Consulate. There is no industry here either in finding or polishing them.

II.—Antimony.—I have obtained this metal from two places, 九台山 in Changlo on the Hunan border about 150 miles S. by W. of the Consulate, and from 三路口 in Hofêngchow not far from the first-named place. It is found in the form of nuggets in the clay.

III.—Barytes.—150 miles S.W. of Consulate.

IV.—Calcareous Spar 寒水石, Chang-yang.—It is ground for making medicine.

V.—Coal.—It would be more difficult to name hills in this Consular district where coal does not exist than where it does. It is only when the coal is exactly suited to the natives' requirements, or where the mine is favourably situated, that the coal is worked to any extent.

There is a light, greenish-coloured coal said to be of excellent quality produced in Siangyangfu on the Han River.

In many places the shafts are left open and coal extracted as people in the neighbourhood require it either as fuel or for burning lime.

VI.—Copper has been sent me from four places in Chang-lo, viz: 九台山, 楊家台, 小溪, 路抵溪. It doubtless exists elsewhere. The ore from 九台山 is said to yield 20 per cent of pure metal.

VII.—Gold must exist in the neighbourhood. During winter there is a little washing for gold dust below Chih keang, 45 miles S.E. of this; gold in bars is exported concealed about the person. The silver of Szechuan and Yunnan contains a certain percentage of gold, and there is an importation here, in native boats, of sulphuric acid to extract it. Further veins of quartz exist in the lime stone, some of which are said to be auriferous.

VIII.—Granite and Syenite exist about 20 miles up the river at Nanto, where they are chipped into mill stones, mortars, cattle troughs, &c.

IX.—Iron exists in various forms in this Consular district. I have found iron ore at Chingshuiwan, 95 miles S. by W. of the Consulate (near Chingshuiwan there are small smelting works). On the banks of the Yangtsze, 20 miles above the Consulate, I found iron ore under the granite boulders. At Itu, 30 miles below the Consulate, I found Iron Pyrites. I found iron ore and iron stone at Chin kangshan, about 20 miles N.W., and also at Nan chiehah, 40 miles N.E. of the Consulate. Mr. Tsêng, a native engineer, found iron nodules at Hsiangchi, 50 miles above here, and red oxide of iron at Wantan, about 160 miles to the S.W. Iron exists almost all over the district. Iron cauldrons and rude agricultural implements are to a certain extent exported in native vessels.

X.—Lead and Lead Ore.—I have obtained from three places in the Ichang Consular district:—

Hsingshan 70 miles N. by W.

Hofêngchow 150 „ S. by W.

Chiutaishan 160 „ S.

Plasters made of lead 陀僧 are produced in Hofêngchow and are exported in native vessels.

XI.—Lime.—Burning lime is a large industry here; all over the country there are large and small lime kilns.

XII.—Lime Stone is much used for foundations of houses and walls. In the quarries at Kwangmeushan on the Ching river, 10 miles above Itu, over 500 men are employed. At the quarries at Hoaitze, some 18 miles above Ichang on the Yangtsze, over 100 men are employed. The rough stone costs at the quarries about two pence half penny per foot, and can be delivered at Ichang for three pence per foot.

XIII.—Marble is said by the Ichang gazeteer to exist at Hsiangchi. I have not seen any.

XIV.—Mercury is said to be found in small quantities, 95 miles S.E. of the Consulate near Shasze.

XV.—Oolite exists in many places.

XVI.—Rockeries.—The water trickling over lime stone covers stalks and leaves of plants with a thick coating of lime and forms stones of curious shape, which are cut out and planted with ferns, cineraria, &c. About £350 worth of these rockeries are sent from this yearly by the steamer to Hankow.

XVII.—Saltpetre is found in caves in the lime stone; being contraband of trade it is only exported in native vessels.

XVIII.—Sandstone exists in a belt of country running west. It is not much quarried.

XIX.—Silver.—The mines of this metal are principally situated in Yunnan, which belongs rather to the Chungking than to the Ichang Consular district. There is reported to be a silver mine at Hushui, about 100 miles N.E. of the Consulate.

XX.—Slate.—Shaly slate is found running for miles under the red clay and white lime stone of the coal-producing hills. A solid slate is found at the top of the white lime stone cliffs of the Ichang gorge. At this spot

many of the houses of the natives are roofed with slate. There used to be quarries in the caves near for obtaining slate to make native ink palettes, but they have been recently closed for fear of the roof of the caves giving way.

IV.—PLANTS AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTS.

The following are the plants and vegetable substances produced in the Ichang Consular District as far as I have as yet been able to ascertain and identify them.

Monsieur Fauvel, of H. I. M. Customs, has been kind enough to go over the list and to make some corrections.

I.—Acacia.—The *Acacia Concinna* [*Mimosa Saponaria* Roxburgh] 皂莢. This tree produces a reddish-tinged flower and a black seed from which soap is made; other kinds of *Acacia* (among which is the *Acacia Ferox*) grow in this district, but they are not as far as I know put to any use.

II.—Aconite 草烏頭.—The roots of various *Aconites* are used as heroic remedies. I know of three varieties produced in this district:—

1. *Aconitum Sinense* 草烏 (monk's hood.)
2. *Aconitum Lycocotum* 狼毒 (wolf's bane.)
3. *Aconitum variegatum* 香附.

III.—*Acorus*.—One species 菖蒲 is used as a tonic, and the root of another 香根草 as a nutritive.

IV.—*Adenophora verticillata* 沙參.—The root of this campunaceous plant is supposed to have the restorative effects of ginseng.

V.—*Ailanthus Glandulosa* 樗.—The leaves of this plant are used as an astringent.

VI.—Alder 杞木 is said to grow in the Chang-lo district.

VII.—Aloes Lign. (*Aquilaria Agallocha* Roxburgh) 沈香木 is said to grow in Hsing-shan.

VIII.—*Amaranth* 野苋 (Love lies bleeding) is eaten as a vegetable, as is also 馬齒莧 or 長命菜 *Amaranthus Oleraceus* (goosefoot). *Portulaca* is also eaten. The root of the *Amaranth pupalia geniculata* 牛藤 is prescribed for rheumatism and syphilis. There is another variety of *Amaranth* here 黃花蒿 or 草蒿.

IX.—*Amaryllis* 慈菇.—The native gazeteer classes this plant among fruit bearing shrubs.

X.—*Amomum* 白朮.—The paste made from this plant is used to cure wounds. The Rhizome of another variety of *Amomum* 三七 is used as a restorative and sells for a high price.

XI.—*Anchusa Tinctoria* (Borage wort) 紫草.—The root is used in small pox.

XII.—*Andrographis paniculata* 黃連.—A drug made from this plant is given to new born infants.

XIII.—*Angelica* 前胡.—The root of the *Archangelica Officinalis* is given as a tonic, as is also the root of the 獨活 a plant very sensitive, perhaps a species of *Angelica*.

XIV.—*Anise* 八角.—The growth of this plant in this district is probably recent as it is not mentioned in the native gazeteer.

XV.—*Apricot* (*Amygdalus*).—Four varieties grow in this district. The Silver, Golden, Sand and Plum Apricot 杏.

XVI.—*Aralia Palmata* 五加皮.—A tincture made from this plant is prescribed for rheumatism and syphilis.

XVII.—*Arbor Vitæ* 大柏.

XVIII.—*Arbutus* (*Myrica Sapida*) 楊梅 Arrowroot.—See Starch.

XIX.—*Artemisia Abrotanum* (Southern wood) 茵陳蒿.—A decoction from this is given for colds. The *Artemisia Moxa* (Mugwort) 艾 is used as a counter irritant. The *Artemisia Dracunculus* 青蒿 (wormwood) in skin diseases, and the *Artemisia Leonuris Sinensis* in puerpeval fevers 益母草.

XX.—*Arums*, *Aroids* and *Aracious* plants.—The number of these in this district is considerable. I have identified the 半夏 the *Arisæma triphyllum* and *Pythonium* used as an anæsthetic, the 天南星 *Arum Pentaphyllum* given in apoplexy the 萬年青 *Arum ophioglossum*, and the 觀音蓮 *Arum Lily*.

XXI.—*Ash*.—I fancy I have seen the *Ash* in Chang yang and Chang lo. They call it there 柳 a name given to the Tamarisk Tree.

XXII.—*Ash Mountain* 棠梨 (*Grewia elastica*).—I fancy I have seen this plant, but Mons. Fauvel thinks I must have mistaken another plant for it.

XXIII.—*Asparagus*.—A species of 龍鬚菜.

XXIV.—*Aster* 粉團.

XXV.—*Atractylodes rubra* 蒼朮 is used as a tonic.—A lotion is also made from it for sore eyes.

XXVI.—*Araucaria Imbricata*?—Identification doubtful.

XXVII.—Autumn tree (*Catalpa Bungei*) 楸木.—Of the leaves of this tree a lotion is made for wounds.

XXVIII.—*Azalea pontica* and *Azalea procumbens* 映山黃 or 黃杜鵑 and 映山紅 or 紅杜鵑

XXIX.—Balsam (*Impatiens Balsamina*) 鳳仙花 or 指甲花.—The seeds are given to women in child birth.

XXX.—Bamboo.—Of the 60 kinds of Bamboos known to Chinese botanists, 20 grow in this Consular district:—

1. 南竹 Southern or Giant Bamboo used for masts, water pipes, buckets, &c.
2. 箬竹 The kwei bamboo. The sprouts are eaten as a vegetable, the sticks are used as boat hooks, scaffolding, fencing for gardens, carrying poles, and the bark is made into strong rope.
3. 水竹 The water bamboo. Sprouts eaten, and a fine matting made from the fibre.
4. 山竹 The hill bamboo. Sprouts eaten.
5. 叢竹 The bush bamboo has long intervals between joints; is used for making opium pipes. The fibre makes good paper.
6. 紫竹 Black bamboo.—Used for ornamental basket work.
7. 斑竹 Spotted bamboo makes stems of tobacco pipes, fan handles and various ornaments.
8. 慈竹 The love bamboo is largely grown in Chang lo, Changyang and Itu for making paper.
9. 淡竹 The flavourless bamboo. From the leaves of this bamboo an emollient decoction is made which is prescribed for diseases of the head and chest.
10. 篠竹 Dwarf bamboo, from which the shafts of arrows are made.
11. 簕竹 *Bambusa latifolia*, from its leaves sails, hats and waterproof clothing are made.
12. 羅漢竹 *Bhodisvatta* bamboo is used for fan handles.
13. 鳳尾竹 The fern bamboo.
14. 藍田竹 The blue field bamboo.

15. 荊竹 The thorny bamboo.
16. 實竹 The true bamboo.
17. 風竹 The wind bamboo.
18. 冷竹 The cold bamboo.
19. 軟竹 The soft bamboo.
20. 龍頭竹 The dragon head bamboo.

Bamboo celestial or flowering,—see nandina domestica.

XXXI.—Banana (*Musa Sinensis*) 芭蕉 or 甘蕉.

XXXII.—Barberry (*Berberis Lycium*) 枸杞根 and 地骨皮.—The root and bark are used as astringents.

XXXIII.—Barley (*Hordeum Vulgare*) 大麥.—Sown in October and November and reaped in April.

XXXIV.—Bead tree (*Melia Azedarach*) 苦楝樹. The fruit of this tree is used as a disinfectant and febrifuge.

XXXV.—Beans. I know of 18 varieties of beans and peas in this district.

1. 白豆 *Dolichos Soja* White.
2. 黃豆 *Dolichos Soja* Yellow.
3. 黑豆 *Dolichos Soja* Black.
4. 赤豆 *Dolichos Soja* Red.
5. 綠豆 *Phaseolus Angulata* and *Vicia Sativa*.
6. 豌豆 *Pisum Arvense*.
7. 五月豆 June Bean.
8. 九月豆 October Bean.
9. 四季豆 Perennial Bean.
10. 扁豆 *Dolichos Lablab*.
11. 刀豆 *Dolichos Lablab*.
12. 胡豆 *Faba Vulgaris* (Horse Bean).
13. 龍瓜豆 French Bean.
14. 虎爪豆 Tiger claw Bean.
15. 蛾眉豆 Ngo Mei Bean.
16. 豇豆 Kang Bean.
17. 褐豆 Huo Bean.
18. 藿豆 Huo Bean.

Tubs and jars of pickled beans line the bank of the river just above Ichang for export in native boats to Shasze and other places down river.

XXXVI.—Beet 甜菜 or 蒼蓬菜.

XXXVII.—Bellwort (*Platycodon Grandiflorum*) 桔梗 is used as a tonic. Out of the root an imitation ginseng is made.

XXXVIII.—*Bignonia* 凌霄 or 紫威—the flowers are given in puerperal fevers and certain female disorders.

XXXIX.—Birth wort (*Heteropa Asaroides*) 細辛.—The root is used for rheumatism.

XL.—Blackthorne 木香.

XLI.—Box tree (*Buxus Sempervirens*) 黃楊.—Of the wood combs are made, and of the leaves a cooling medicine.

Borage wort.—See *Anchusa Tinctoria*.

XLII.—Buckthorne [*Zizyphus Jujuba*] 棗 is grown largely in Tangyang; 棗仁 are kernels of this plant and of the *Rhamnus Zizyphus* (see China Date); they are made into wine.

XLIII.—Buckwheat (*Polygonum Fagopyrum*) 蕎麥.

XLIV.—Burr (*Xanthum Strumarium*) 蒼耳子 is used as a tonic.

XLV.—Cabbage (*Brassica*) 白菜.—There are several species of Cabbage in this district 油菜. *Brassica Sinensis* from the seeds of which oil is made; the Giant Cabbage and others.

XLVI.—Cactus (local name 壇人長 *Calladium*) 慈姑.—See *Amaryllis*.

XLVII.—*Camelia Olifera*.—Two varieties grow wild in this Consular district, 油茶, from which oil is extracted, and the 山茶.

XLVIII.—Camphor tree (*Laurus Camphora*) 樟 grows in Changyang and Kweichow; the wood forms a staple of native trade.

XLIX.—Camphor.—A drug resembling Camphor 龍腦 or 鹿腦 is produced here.

L.—*Capsicum*.—Two species grow here, the 廣椒 and the 山胡椒.

LI.—*Cassia* (*Saphora Japonica*) 槐 grows in Changlo. The buds are used for curing sores behind the ears, and a dye is made from the bark.

LII.—*Caragana Flava* 黃精.—The root is supposed to confer longevity.

LIII.—Carrots 胡蘿蔔.

LIV.—Cart track (*Plantago Major*) 車前草.—The seeds are used as a diuretic.

LV.—Castor oil plant 蓖麻.—The seeds are used for making Castor oil.

LVI.—Cedar; the 榿木 which grows in Chang lo is probably a species of Cedar.

LVII.—Celery (*Apium Graveolens*) 芹 and perhaps 同蒿.

LVIII.—Centaury 龍胆草 is used as a cooling medicine.

LIX.—Chamomile (*Chrysanthemum Indicum*) 金盞花 or 長春花.

LX.—Charcoal of excellent quality is produced in this district, especially in Chang lo, Itu and Hsingshan. It is made both of Chestnut and Oakwood, and is largely exported in native vessels.

LXI.—Cherry (*Cerasus*, *Pseudo Cerasus*) 櫻桃.—The fruit is ripe in the end of April and beginning of May, 山櫻桃. Mountain Cherry fruit not edible 棠棣 or 郁李 is the Wild Cherry (*Cerasus Communis*) and the 茱萸 is the Cornelian Cherry (*Cornus Officinalis*), the fruit of which is used as an astringent.

LXII.—Chestnut (*Castanea*).—The 板栗 produces large fruit which is exported. The 茅栗 produces small fruit, its timber is used for cart beams and knees of boats, besides being burnt into charcoal.

LXIII.—Chickory (*Cicorium Intybus*) 蒿蕒 or 蒿苣.

LXIV.—*Chimonanthus Fragrans* 臘梅.—The leaves are used as a cooling medicine.

LXV.—China cineraria 虎耳草.

LXVI.—China date (*Rhamnus Zizyphus*) 棗 and another species 拐棗.—The dried fruit resembles the dried fruit of the Palm date. See Buckthorne.

LXVII.—China grass (*Boehmeria Nivea*) 縈麻.—The fibre and a coarse cloth made from it is an article of the native trade of this district.

LXVIII.—China Mahogany (*Cedrella Odorata*) 椿木 is much used for furniture, building sides of canoes, &c. The young shoots are eaten as a vegetable.

LXIX.—China Olive (*Canarium*) 青果 or 橄欖.—The fruit is prepared as the true olive.

LXX.—China root (*Smilax Sinensis*) 土茯苓.—A decoction is made from the roots.

LXXI.—China Skullcap (*Scutellaria Viscidula*) 黃芩 is used as a febrifuge.

LXXII.—China spinach (*Chenopodium Rubrum*) 莧.—

The boiled leaves of this plant taste like spinach. (See convolvulus).

LXXXIII.—Chrysanthemum 菊.—A lotion for the eyes is made of the flowers.

LXXXIV.—Cicuta (of the Umbelifer) 藜木.—Used as a stimulant.

LXXXV.—Cinnamon 官桂 is an article of local trade.

LXXXVI.—Citron.—Two species of Sarcodactylis Odorata (Buddha's hand) grow in this district, the 佛手柑 and the 香櫞 or 枸櫞. The fruit is much prized by the Chinese, who place it in vases for ornament.

LXXXVII.—Convolvulus. Convolvulus Reptans, 菠菜 sometimes called the China Spinach.—There is another edible Convolvulus 瓠菜, which I have not been able to class. A Convolvulus out of the root of which 黨參 an imitation ginseng is made, and two the 紫苑 and 牽牛 from which drugs are prepared.

LXXXVIII.—Convallaria 麥冬草—Out of this a much-prized Chinese drug is prepared.

LXXXIX.—Clematis Vitalba 木通.—Wood used as a laxative.

LXXX.—Cloth, Cotton 布 is made in Tunghu, Chang yang, Patung, Tangyang, &c. Cloth, Hemp, coarse in Ho fêngchow; Grass cloth and Bamboo Fibre cloth in various parts of this district; cloth made of the Fibre of the Dolichos Trilobus is an important article of the trade of Hsingshan and Patung.

LXXXI.—Cockscomb (Aloysia Cristata) 鷄冠.

LXXXII.—Colt's foot 莞冬花 prescribed for coughs.

LXXXIII.—Coriander 莞荳.

LXXXIV.—Cotton Raw 木棉. The principal staple of Ichang, extensively cultivated over all the plains and low hills; largely exported to Szechuan.

LXXXV.—Crab Apple (Pyrus Malus) 花紅 and 木櫨.—A preserve made of the crab apple is much eaten by the Chinese.

LXXXVI.—Crape Myrtle (Lagerstræmia Indica) 紫薇 or 澹紅.

LXXXVII.—Cydonia Japonica 西府海棠.

LXXXVIII.—Cucurbitaceous plants.—Of these I know of 18 varieties growing in this district:

1. 甘瓠 Sweet Calabash.

2. 苦瓠 Bitter Calabash.
3. 匏瓠 Long „
4. 甘壺蘆 Sweet Double Gourd.
5. 苦壺蘆 Bitter „ „
6. 藥壺蘆 Medicine „
7. 冬瓜 or 白瓜 Cucurbita Pepo [Tallow Gourd]
and the Benincasa Cerifera (Pumpkin).
8. 越瓜 or 栳瓜 or 菜瓜 Giant Cucumber.
9. 胡瓜 or 黃瓜 Common Cucumber [Cucumis
Melo].
10. 絲瓜 or 蠻瓜 Cucumis Longa.
11. 苦瓜 or 錦荔枝 or 癩葡萄 Momordica
Balsamina.
12. 西瓜 Citrullus [Water Melon].
13. 香瓜 or 八輪金瓜 Musk Melon [Cucumis
Melo].
14. 南瓜 Southern Melon [Cucurbita Melopepo].
15. 哈密瓜 Crab Melon.
16. 鐵瓜 Iron Melon.
17. 八月瓜 or 八月麥 October Melon.
18. 水冬瓜 Water Winter Melon.

LXXXIX.—Cynaraceous Plants 續斷.—Circium Lanceolatum is prescribed as a tonic and for diarrhoea, 小薊 is taken internally as an antiscorbutic, and the 大薊 is made into poultices to apply to boils.

XC.—Cypress 柏.—Biota Orientalis, 寶塔柏 Cupressus Thuyoides 牛尾松 Cupressus Funeris.

XCI.—Daisy.—The Chinese word 粉團 includes daisies and many other of the compositæ.

XCII.—Dandelion 蒲公英 is used as a tonic.

XCIII.—Daphne Gensykwa 丁香.—Two species, one white and one yellow.

XCIV.—Deodar [Cedrus Deodara ?]—Identification doubtful.

XCV.—Digitalis [Fox Glove).—Dianthus, see Pink.

XCVI.—Dogbane [Apocynum Juventûs] 何首烏.—The root of this plant is supposed to confer long life and posterity.

XCVII.—Dolichos Trilobus 葛.—This is a much valued plant here. The flower is eaten as a vegetable. The root is given in fevers, and from it a starch is made. The fibres

are woven into cloth. It forms an important item in the domestic trade of the district.

XCVIII.—Duckweed [*Lemna* and *Riccia*] 萍.

XCIX.—Dyes Vegetable 紫草.—A red dye is produced here and exported, made from the *Tournefortia Arguzina*. Two green dyes 凍綠皮 and 青皮 are made from the barks of the *Rhamnus Infectorius* and *Cassia*. Also Indigo (q. v.).

C.—Egg Plant [*Solanum Melongena*] 茄.

CI.—Elecampane [*Inula Chinensis*] 旋覆花.—Tonic and Stomachic.

CII.—Elm [*Ulmus Chinensis* or *Microptelea Sinensis*] 榆梓樹.

CIII.—Endive [*Cicorium Endiva*] 苦茶菜.

Epiphyte, see Mulberry.

Equisetum, see Horse tail.

Euonymus, see Spindle Tree.

Euphorbia, see Spurge.

CIV.—Everlasting flowers of three varieties, red, yellow and white, 千年紅, 千年黃, 千年白.

CV.—Fennel [*Feniculum Dulce*] 茴香 is given in dyspepsia.

CVI.—Ferns 鳳尾草.—This district is very rich in Ferns. Of the *Aspidium*, *Nephrodium*, and *Pteris*, called by the Chinese by the same name 蕨, the young fronds are used as food, and of the roots starch is made. A species of fern 骨碎補 probably the *Niphobulus Lingua* (classed by Chinese among sedges) grows in Chang yang; it is used as an astringent and is exported from here in native vessels.

Captain Yankowski has collected about seventy species of ferns here, and has identified the following:—

1. *Adiantum Acthropicum*.
2. „ *Capilla Veneris*.
3. *Adiantum Pedatum*.
4. *Asplenium Fontanum*.
5. *Asplenium Trichomanes*.
6. *Cheilanthes*.
7. *Cysopteris Alpina*.
8. „ *Fragilis*.
9. *Davalia Canarinsis* [Hare's foot].
10. *Dicksonia*.
11. *Lastroea Oreopteris*.

12. *Pteris Aquilina*.
13. *Scolopendrium Hemionitis*.
14. „ *Vulgare*.
15. *Woodsia Glabella*.
16. „ *Hyperborea*.
17. „ *Iloensia*.

CVII.—Fig [*Ficus Sinensis*] 無花果 or 文光果.

CVIII.—Fir tree [*Pinus Sinensis*] 松.

CVIX.—Fumitory [*Fumaria Officinalis* and *Fumaria Racemosa*] 紫花地丁 are given for jaundice. There is also a yellow variety 黃花地丁 resembling *Corydalis Lutea*.

CX.—Fungus.—The peasants in this district employ their spare time in gathering various species of Fungi which are used as food and medicine and form an important item of the domestic trade. The 茯苓 *Pachymas Cocos* is used as a febrifuge and pepsic. 18 other Fungi of this district are commodities of trade—1 靈芝草 *Polyporus Ignarius*, 2 石耳 other *Polypori*, 3 土菌 *Agarics* and *Amanitas*, 4 香菌 *Boletus*, 5 火靈芝 or 中筋草 the life giving *Boletus*, 6 木耳, 7 百合, 8 松菌, 9 茅草菌, 10 羊肚菌, 11 凍菌, 12 黃絲菌, 13 獅毛菌, 14 重陽菌, 15 涼傘菌, 16 包穀菌, 17 灰色菌, 18 鷄冠菌.

CXI.—Forget-me-not.

CXII.—*Gardenia Florida* 梔子 and another *Gardenia* 海梔 with small flowers.

CXIII.—Garlic [*Alium Sativum*].—Two species 蒜 and 野虎蒜.

CXIV.—Gentian [*Erythraea Gentianaceae*].—The Chinese call this plant by the same name 龍胆草 as the Centaury and employ it in the same manner.

CXV.—Ginger 薑.

CXVI.—Gingko Yew [*Salisburia Adiantifolia*].—The fruit 白果 is used as a peptic.

CXVII.—Ginseng Bitter [*Robinia Amara*] 苦參.—Root is used as a tonic.

CXVIII.—Groundsel.—A plant somewhat resembling Groundsel, 棉花菜, used as a vegetable.

Greengage.—See Plum.

CXVIX.—Grape 葡萄.—Two varieties are grown in this district, long and round.

CXX.—Haitang 海棠 [*Begonia Discolor*].

CXXI.—Hedysarum [Bird's foot] 地榆.—Given for wounds and as an astringent.

CXXII.—Hemp Arbutan [Sida Tilicefolia] 苧麻.—The fibre of this hemp is an important item of the domestic trade.

CXXIII.—Hermodactyl [Uvularia Grandiflora] 貝母 is used as a febrifuge, and to increase the milk of women nursing.

CXXIV.—Hibiscus.—There are 5 varieties—1 石柱 葵 Hibiscus Esculentus, 2 芙蓉 and 木芙蓉 Hibiscus Mutabilis, 3 and 4 木槿 two varieties of Hibiscus Syriacus, white and red. The first is used in skin diseases and to hasten parturition. The second and third for tumors and pulmonary diseases, and the 4th as a diuretic. 5 錦葵 Hibiscus Rosa Sinensis.

CXXV.—Honey suckle [Lonicera Xylosteum].—There are two varieties here, the 忍冬藤 and 金銀花. The tendrils of the former are used to purify the blood.

CXXVI.—Hollyhock 淑季花.

CXXVII.—Holly.

CXXVIII.—Hornbeam 梣木.—A tree resembling the Hornbeam grows in Chang yang.

CXXIX.—Horse Raddish.

CXXX.—Horse Chestnut 桫欏木 grows in Ho fêng chow.

CXXXI.—Horse tail [Equisetum Hyemale] 木賊.—Stems are powdered and used as astringent. Another variety 馬鞭草 is given to purify the blood (see Mare's tail).

CXXXII.—House Leek [Umbilicus Malocophyllus] 瓦松 is used as a cooling medicine.

CXXXIII.—Hoya Carnosa 繡 毬.

CXXXIV.—Hydrangea 洋 繡 毬.

CXXXV.—Indigo 靛 is produced here from two plants, the 大青 Polygonum Tinctorium and the 小青 another species of Polygonum. It is a staple of the domestic trade.

CXXXVI.—Incense [Joss stick] 香 is manufactured in Tung hu and Chang lo.

CXXXVII.—Iris 鸞 寶 or 馬 蘭 子 is used in puerperal fevers; the Rhizome of the Paidanthus Chinensis 射 干 is used for sore throat. Another species the 野 蘭 草 grows wild all over the hills here.

CXXXVII.—Ivy.—Two species, one long one broad-leaved. They are neither the same as our home Ivy.

CXXXVIII.—Ipomoea (?) 喇叭花.—Identification doubtful.

CXXXIX.—Jasmine 吊井棕 grows wild on the hills here.

Jasminum Sambac.—See Moli.

CXL.—Job's Tears [Coix Lachryma] 薏苡.—The seeds are given in lung diseases.

CXLI.—Judas Tree [Cercis Sinensis] 紫荆.

CXLII.—Juncus 通草.—The pith of this plant is used to absorb pus from sores.

CXLIII.—Kaoliang [Andropogon Sorgho, or Holcus Sorghum] 高糧 is sparsely grown on hill lands. Another species 稗糧 grows in Kweichow.

CXLIV.—Kweihwa [Olea Fragrans] 桂花.—Making scent bags of this flower is one of the minor industries of Chang yang.

CXLV.—Lacquer Tree [Vimicefera Croton] 漆樹.

CXLVI.—Lacquer 漆 made of above tree is an article of the domestic trade of Tunghu, Chang yang, Hsing shan, Patung, Hofêng chow and Changlo.

CXLVII.—Lampwick.—The pith of the Scirpus Scapularis is used as lampwick. It is extensively produced in this district, and is exported hence to Hankow in large bales packed in matting, which are heaped up (in the form of a hay stack) on the top of two or three boats joined together by planks, and is thus drifted down the Yangtsze.

CXLVIII.—Lespedeza? [or Pucrasia Thumbergiana]

山豆根.—Root; sedative:

CXLIX.—Lettuce 生菜.

CL.—Libanotis 防風.—Prescribed for colds.

CLI.—Lichen.

CLII.—Lily.—1. The Hemerocallis Graminacea 金針菜, or 黃花菜, is eaten as a vegetable, and is exported from this in native boats. 2. The 金萱 is another species of the same plant. 3. 白玉簪 is the Tube Rose Lily. 4. 紅玉簪 is a red variety of the same. 5. 旱蓮花 a lily not identified. 6. 山丹 Lilium Bulbiferum, the bulbs are eaten to purify the blood. 7. 麥門冬 a much prized Chinese tonic is prepared from the Aneilema Commelyna Medica and other plants. 8. 百合 Lilium Candidum is

given as a tonic. The above lilies are mentioned in the native Ichang Gazetteer. I have in my rambles seen several other varieties of lilies.

CLIII.—Liquidambar 構樹.—This is the tree which in my last consular report I said resembled the plane tree. The sap is made into gum for fixing gold leaf, and paper is made from the bark.

CLIV.—Levisticum 川芎.—The root of this plant sliced and whole is largely exported as a medicine from Szechuan. It forms an important item in the Ichang trade returns.

CLV.—Lophanthus.—Two kinds 夏枯草 and 蘇子, given as medicine to women.

CLVI.—Lysimachia 常山.—This is a plant belonging to the Primula tribe; identification doubtful. It is prescribed for skin diseases, and for women in childbirth.

CLVII.—Madder 威靈仙.—*Rubia Cordifolia* and 茜草 *Rubia Angustinum*.—Given in syphilis.

CLVIII.—Magnolia 辛夷, 玉蘭, and 迎春 are the *Magnolia Yulan*. It is used as a stimulant. The bark of the *Magnolia Hypoleuca* 厚樸 is used as a tonic.

CLIX.—Maize [*Setaria Glauca*] 粟 or 玉蜀.—Two varieties are grown here. Out of the smaller variety spirits are distilled.

CLX.—Mangel Wurzel 甜菜 or 荳蔻菜.

CLXI.—Mare's-tail.—The word 藻 is applied to *Equisetum Hyemale*, *Hippuris*, and *Ruppia Rostellata*.

CLXII.—Marsh Plant 杜蘅 grows in Ho fêng chow; it has large cordate leaves.

CLXIII.—Marigold [*Calendula*] 金錢菊 is given as a diuretic. A lotion made from the flowers is used as an eyewash.

CLXIV.—*Melanthium* 百部 is perhaps a species of *Melanthium* 麥門冬.—A prized tonic is prepared from the *Melanthium Cochinchinense* and other plants [see Lily].

CLXV.—*Melissa* 紫蘇.—Cultivated, and 五香草 wild, given as a stomachic.

CLXVI.—Millet [*Panicum Miliaceum*] 黍.—Of two varieties; 稷 a millet I have not identified.

CLXVII.—Mint [*Mentha Piperita*] 薄荷 is given as an anti-spasmodic.

CLXVIII.—Moli [*Jasminum Sambac*] 茉莉.

CLXIX.—Mulberry [*Morus Alba* and *Nigra*] 桑.—The liber of the mulberry root 桑白皮 is prescribed for convulsions. The paper mulberry [*Morus Broussonetia Papyrifera*] 楮. Mulberry Epiphyte 桑寄生. The last is prescribed for women in child.

CLXX.—Muricia Cochinchinense 木鱉.

CLXXI.—Mustard [*Sinapis Alba*] 芥菜.

CLXXII.—Mylitta Lapidescens 雷丸.—The seeds are given in itch.

CLXXIII.—Moss 青草漫.

CLXXIV.—Nan Muh 柎 or 竹葉柎 or 楠木.—There are many varieties of this tree, none of which I have been able to identify. The wood is much prized for making ornamental furniture.

CLXXV.—Nandina Domestica [Flowering or Celestial Bamboo] 南天竹.

CLXXVI.—Nettle [*Urtica Tuberosa*] 天麻.—The tubers are given for rheumatism.

CLXXVII.—Narcissus Tazetta 水仙.

CLXXVIII.—Oak.—There are several varieties of Oak in this district. 1. The 柎 *Quercus Serrata* or *Sinensis* (commonly called the silk worm Oak) on which in other parts of China the Ailanthus silk worm (*Attacus Cynthia*) is reared: here as far as I know this oak is only used for burning into charcoal. 2. The 櫟木 is the *Quercus Ilex* and *Salix*. 3. 柎 *Quercus Mongolica*. 4. 栲栗 a species of oak extensively grown in Itu, Chang yang, Chang lo, Kweichow, &c. The bottoms of the canoes in several of the smaller rivers are made of the wood of this tree.

CLXXIX.—Oats 燕.—I have seen a few oat fields on the hills. Oats here are used as medicine and not for feeding cattle.

CLXXX.—Oil tree (*Dryandra Cordifolia*) 梧桐.

CLXXXI.—Oil.—Several kinds of oil are made in this district.

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|--------|----------|--------------------------|
| 1. 藤油 | Oil from | Sesamum seeds. |
| 2. 菜油 | „ „ | Tea and Camellia seeds. |
| 3. 豆油 | „ „ | Beans. |
| 4. 茶油 | „ „ | Brassica Sinensis seeds. |
| 5. 木油 | „ „ | <i>Jatropha Curcas</i> . |
| 6. 木籽油 | „ „ | Fruit of Tallow Tree. |
| 7. 棉油 | „ „ | Seeds of Cotton Plant. |

8. 桐油 Oil from *Dryandra Cordifolia*.

9. 葦蔴油,, ,, Castor Oil Plant.

The immense amount of oil made in this district is locally consumed. Oil forms a large item in the food of the people. It is almost their only means of light at night. It is their only preservative for the wood of their innumerable boats and of the frames of their houses. It is also necessary for water-proof clothing, as a lubricant, &c., animal fats not being used for these purposes.

CLXXXII.—Oleander 夾竹桃.

CLXXXIII.—Onion (*Allium Cepa*) 葱.

CLXXXIV.—Orange.—Several varieties are grown here. They are the best oranges I have ever tasted. We have among others 1. 金錢橘 the golden nutmeg orange (*Citrus Japonica*), 2. 壽星橘 the golden orange, another variety of the *Citrus Japonica*, 3. 香柑 *Citrus Aurantiaca* (Tangier Orange), 4. 柑 *Citrus Margarita* or Mandarin Orange, 5. 橘 *Citrus Nobilis* (red orange), 6. 橙 or 金橘 *Citrus Aurantium* (Coolie Orange), 7. 枸橘 *Citrus Bigaradia* (Thorny Orange), 8. 公孫橘 *Citrus Trintera* (another species of Thorny Orange), 9. 枳殼 *Citrus Fusca*. The cultivation of the orange is extending, and the export is increasing. As yet they pass duty free. They do not appear in the trade returns. The dried oranges of the *Citrus Fusca* and the peel of the *Citrus Nobilis* are taxed on exportation and importation. They are used as tonics.

CLXXXV.—Orchids.—There are several varieties in this district. 1. 石斛 *Dendrobium Ceraia* used as a tonic. 2. 纏枝牡丹 not identified. 3. 蘭莖薹 are the stalks of various orchids when eaten as a vegetable. 4. A pretty little orchid, somewhat like the bee orchid, grows wild on the hills here; it is not mentioned in the native Ichang Gazetteer. It is called locally 筆蘭花. There are three kinds, red, yellow and white.

CLXXXVI.—Palm 櫻 (*Chamærops Fortuni*). Hemp or Coir Palm 櫻欄 (*Chamærops Sinensis*), and 五年矮 Dwarf Palm.

CLXXXVII.—*Pawlonia Grandifolia* 泡桐.

CLXXXVIII.—Pansy (*Viola Tricolor*) 蝴蝶花.

CLXXXIX.—Paper of a coarse kind is made in Itu, Chang lo, Chang yang, Tunghu, Ho fêng chow, &c., by mills worked by water power.

CXC.—Parsley (*Apium Graveolens*) 芹, and another variety 香菜.

CXCI.—Peach (*Amygdalus Persica*) 桃.—I know of 10 varieties of Peach trees cultivated in this district,—six for the fruit and four for the blossoms. The fruit is poor.

CXCII.—Pear (*Pyrus*) 荔.—I know of 8 varieties cultivated here,—seven for fruit, one for blossom. Fruit poor but largely exported.

CXCIII.—Pepperwort (*Xanthoxylon Alatum*) 秦椒.—The leaves are used as stimulants.

CXCIV.—Persimmon (*Diospyros Kaki*) 柿.—The fruit is of very good quality.

CXCV.—Phytolacca Octandra 商陸—Used as an emetic.

CXCVI.—Peony 牡丹 *Peonia Moutan*.—The 芍藥 *Peonia Albiflora* is used as an astringent; the 赤藥 *Peonia Rubra* as an alterative, and 丹皮 Peony bark is prescribed for female disorders.

CCXVII.—Pine 杉 (*Cunninghamia Sinensis*) is the wood most used for buildings and firewood.

CCXVIII.—Pink 剪絨花 or (剪春羅): *Dianthus Sinensis Fischeri*, and 虞美人 a *Dianthus* not identified.

CXCIX.—Pipa (*Eriobotrya Japonica*) 枇杷.—Fruit poor.

CC.—*Plumbago Zeylanica* 老少年, 鳳凰衣, 雁來紅, and 漢宮秋.—Used as a sudorific.

CCI.—Plum.—I know three species in this district, each of which has several varieties, the 梅, 李, and 奈; fruit poor.

CCII.—*Polygonum Hydropiper* 蕭蓄.—The juice is prescribed for itch.

CCIII.—Pomelo (*Citrus Decumana*) 柚.

CCIV.—Pomegrante (*Punica Granatum*) 石榴.

CCV.—Poplar (*Populus Spinosa*) 淫羊藿.

CCVI.—Poppy 罌粟.—Much grown in this district. The cultivation is increasing. To still further encourage the growth the Likin (octroi) on the export of native opium has been recently reduced.

CCVII.—*Potamogeton*? 薺. Identification doubtful.

CCVIII.—Potato (*Solanum Tuberosum*) 陽芋 or 羊芋.

CCIX.—Pride of India.

CCX.—Pride of Peru.

CCXI.—Primula.

CCXII.—Pterocarpus Flavus (?) 黃柏.—The bark is used as a tonic. Identification doubtful.

CCXIII.—Pueraria Thunbergiana 葛花葉.—Leaves used as a vegetable. A coarse cloth is made from the fibre. The root 葛根 is eaten as a vegetable.

CCXIV.—Quince [Pyrus Cydonia] 木瓜.

CCXV.—Radish 紅蘿蔔.

CCXVI.—Raspberry [Rubus Idæus] 蒲公英.—Bark used as astringent and opthalmic.

CCXVII.—Reeds and Rushes.—1. 蒲 Cat tail rush (Typha Latifolia). 2. 蘆 or 葦 Arundo Phragmites. 3. 荻 Sundry reeds and rushes.

CCXVIII.—Rhubarb 大黃.

CCXIX.—Rhus Spinosa 刺楸木.

CCXX.—Rice.—I know of seven varieties grown in this district. 1. 白粘 White rice. 2. 紅粘 Red rice grown on hills. 3. 麻粘 Brown rice. 4 and 5. 早糯 and 晚糯, Rices from which sweets are made; the first is ripe in July the second in September. 6. 百日早 a rice that matures in three months. 7. 白溢寨 a rice peculiar to Chang lo. When Chang lo was governed by native chieftains, i.e., before A.D. 1740, this rice was sent to the emperor of China as tribute. It is still produced in the high valleys of Chang lo. I there saw it; the grain is whiter and longer than the ordinary Chinese rice.

CCXXI.—Rose.—There are many varieties here such as 玫瑰 Red rose, 薔薇 Cinnamon rose, 月季 Rosa Semperflorens, and 木香 Dwarf rose, 茶薔, &c.

CCXXII.—Rottlera Japonica 樺木 grows in Patung, and has been called by travellers the "China Birch."

CCXXIII.—Rouge Plant 臙脂花.—This is a species of Carthamus; from it is made the Chinese rouge used as a cosmetic.

CCXXIV.—Ruppia Rostellata 藻.

CCXXV.—Safflower [Carthamus Tinctorius] 紅花 is exported from this place.

CCXXVI.—Sage [Salvia Plebeia] 荊芥.—Used medicinally as a restorative.

CCXXVII.—Sandal wood [Santalum Album] 檀.

CCXXVIII.—Sedges.—Several varieties exist here, 一簷

蒲 *Carex*, 莎 *Cyperus Esculentus*, 三稜草 another *Cyperus*, 燈心草 *Scirpus Scapularis*, from the last lamp wicks are made.

CCXXIX.—*Sesamum Indicum* 芝麻.

CCXXX.—Shallot [*Allium Ascalonicum*] 薤 or 薤子頭.

CCXXXI.—*Shancha* [*Cratægus Cuneata*] 山楂 or 猴楂.—A preserve prized by the Chinese is made from the fruit.

CCXXXII.—Shepherd's Purse [*Capsella Bursa Pastoris*] 地米菜, 薺菜, or 帝密菜 is eaten as a vegetable here:

CCXXXIII.—Shoddy 綿紬.—A fabric made here of a mixture of silk and cotton.

CCXXXIV.—*Siegesbeckia Orientalis* 豨薟.—Used as an emetic.

CCXXXV.—*Silene Saponaria* 王不留行.—The seeds and shoots are made into medicine for wounds.

CCXXXVI.—Soap Tree [*Gleditschia Sinensis*] 皂角. This is the tree which in my last report I said resembled the Egyptian Lentil. It is a leguminous tree; from the seeds the Chinese make soap.

CCXXXVII.—*Solanum*.—Besides the *Solanums* before and after mentioned, many *Solanums* grow in this district,—such as the 海茄, the leaf and fruit of which is used as a vegetable, the 野廣椒, &c.

CCXXXVIII.—Spiderwort [*Commelina Medica*] 竹葉菜 and 淡竹葉.—Infusion of leaves is given as a sedative.

CCXXXIX.—Spindle Tree [*Evonymus Japonicus*] 杜仲.—Is used as a tonic.

CCXL.—Spurge [*Euphorbia*] 巴戟.—Root is given in toothache.

CCXLI.—Starch is made,—1, of the Mealy Taro; 2, *Pachyrhizus Trilobus*; 3, *Dolichos Trilobus*; 4, *Pueraria Thunbergiana*; 5, *Aspidium* root; 6, *Pteris Esculentum*; 7, *Nephrodium Esculentum*; 8, Yam; 9, Potato; 10, Rice; 11, Wheat; &c.

CCXLII.—St. John's Wort.

CCXLIII.—Stone Crop 打不死 is used as a vulnerary. Two other Stone crops are called 佛甲草 and 鷄眼草.

CCXLIV.—Straw.—A coarse straw braid for hats is made here. It is very bad. Straw too is largely used for making sandals.

CCXLV.—Sugar Cane [*Andropogon Saccharatus* or *Sorghum Saccharatum*] 甘蔗.—I have seen very little here.

CCXLVI.—Sun Flower [*Helianthus Annuus*] 向日葵 or 足衛葵.—The seeds are used as a vegetable.

CCXLVII.—Sweet Potato 紅薯.

CCXLVIII.—Tallow Tree 木仔樹.—This is a most beautiful and useful tree; from the seeds Chinese extract vegetable tallow. In autumn the leaves are of a brilliant red, and as these trees are plentiful here, they add greatly to the beauty of the scenery. They are hardy plants, and grow from seed. They might, I think, be acclimatized in Cornwall, Devonshire and South Wales.

CCXLIX.—Tamarisk Tree [*Tamarix Sinensis*] 柳.

CCL.—Taro [*Caladium*] 芋.

CCLI.—Tea is produced in small quantities all over this district. In many parts the peasants grow their own tea, as our peasants grow their own potatoes. Tea of a fine quality grows in the gorges of the Yangtsze and tributary rivers. There are large tea plantations in the Chang-lo district. A tea firing establishment was set up at Yü-yang-kwan 漁洋關 (80 miles from this) to prepare this tea for the English market. A small quantity was sent to England and realized a good price, but the firing establishment did not pay and was moved to Ni-sha-ho 泥沙河 just within the Hunan border. The tea is now sent to Hankow by way of the Tung-ting lake. The largest tea plantations of Chang-lo are at Nan-p'ing-ho 南平河. A very fine tea is produced in Yunnan, called P'u-erh-ch'a 普洱茶. It is not exported to England; it is made up into small bricks about half a pound each, and packed in baskets made of the leaves of the *Bambusa Latifolia*. Eight bricks go to the basket.

In Chang-lo, tea is carried in canvas bags placed in square crates which are attached to the porter's back by bamboo thongs, while in Kweichow the tea is packed in oval crates, lined with oak leaves, which are carried on a bamboo.

CCLII.—*Thalictrum Rubellum* 升麻.—Given in female disorders.

CCLIII.—Timber.—A large trade might be done in timber here, were it not for the obstacles placed in the way by the Chinese authorities. The reason alleged for dis-

couraging the trade is that the inhabitants of the forests are wild and lawless, and trade might lead to riots; perhaps the real reason is that they fear the country would be deforested. The taxes and cost of carriage for bringing down timber from places under forty miles distance add several hundred per cent to the prime cost. Forests with fine timber exist in Itu, Chang-lo, Chang-yang, Kwei-chow, Patung, and other places in this Consular district.

CCLIV.—Toad Flax.

CCLV.—Tobacco [*Nicotiana Sinensis*] is largely grown all over this district.

CCLVI.—*Tournefortia Arguzina*.

CCLVII.—*Tricosanthes* 枸杞根 and 天花粉.—The powdered roots are given as a febrifuge.

CCLVIII.—T'ung Tree [*Jatropha Curcis*] 桐樹.

CCLIX.—Turmeric [a species of] 杜若.

CCLX.—Turnip 白蘿蔔.—There is a medicine 萊菔子 prepared here from turnip seeds.

CCLXI.—*Uncaria Procumbens* 鈎藤.—A wine somewhat resembling tincture of Catechu is made from this plant and is prescribed for infantile maladies.

CCLXII.—*Valisneria* is given by the Chinese the same name 藻 as Mare's tail.

CCLXIII. Varnish Tree [*Rhus Succedanea*] 女貞.—Gallnuts are produced on this tree.

CCLXIV.—Vermicelli 麪粉.—Bad and dear; made from wheat and barley.

CCLXV.—Vervain 香需.

CCLXVI.—Vetch [*Vicia Sativa*] is given by the Chinese the same name 綠豆 as the *Phaseolus Angulatus*.

CCLXVII.—*Viburnum Opulus* is given by the Chinese the same name 雪毬花 as the Hydrangea.

CCLXVIII. Vipers Grass [*Scorzonera*] is given the same name 麥門冬 as the *Ancilema Comimelyna Medica*.

CCLXIX.—Violet; 貫頭, or 紫金花, or 紫荊花.

CCLXX.—Walnut Tree 核桃.

CCLXXI.—Water Caltrops [*Trapa Bicornis*] 蓼.

CCLXXII.—Water Chestnut [*Scirpus Eleocharis Tuberosus*] 蒻薹, or 鳧茖.

CCLXXIII.—Water Lily.—Of the *Nelumbium Speciosum* there are two varieties used as food, the 藕 and the

白蓮花. Another species of Water Lily [*Euryale Ferox*] 芡實 is used as a tonic and astringent.

CCLXXIV.—Water Shield [*Hydropeltis*] 蘋.

CCLXXV.—Wax Tree [*Ligustrum Lucidum*] 蠟樹 and *Ligustrum Japonicum Obtusifolium* 冬青 or 萬年枝. —It is on these trees that the insect, belonging to the Fulgorida family of the Homoptera, which produces white wax feeds.

CCLXXVI.—Wheat 小麥.

CCLXXVII.—Whin [*Ulex*] 金雀花.

CCLXXVIII.—Willow [*Salix Alba* and *Salix Pentandra*] 楊.

CCLXXIX.—Wine made from Indian corn.

CCLXXX.—Yam [*Dioscorea Sativa*] 山藥.

CCLXXXI.—Yarn Cotton.

CCLXXXII.—Yew 翠柏 and the Dwarf Yew [*Podocarpus Thuja*] 羅漢松.—Besides these there are 92 plants or varieties of plants mentioned in the Chinese Gazetteer of the Ichang prefecture which I have not been able to identify.



ARTICLE II.

A JOURNEY IN CHÊKIANG.*

BY

E. H. PARKER, ESQ.,

Of H. B. M.'s Consular Service.

ON the 11th November, 1883, I started from Wênchow, with tide and wind in my favour, upon a visit to Hangchow, by way of Ch'u-chou, Yen-chou, and Kin-hwa Prefectures. There had been no rain to speak of for six weeks previous to the 9th of November, on which and the following days the weather was wet and gloomy; but it cleared up on the 11th, and thus my boats had the advantage of the recent rain in shallow places, whilst I had the immediate personal benefit of the sun; so that the start was in every way of good augury. The river for ninety miles takes a zig-zag course alternately West and North. At the town of Yüe-ch'i 溫溪 (Wên-ch'i), 30 miles from Wênchow, it entirely changes its characteristics, and, from a comparatively deep, muddy river, changes to a clear, shingly bottomed, but still broad stream, impeded as regards navigation by a succession of shallow rapids. The wind was so favourable that the boatmen of their own accord sailed on late into the night, in consequence of which we reached a suitable mooring nook two miles below the city of Ts'ing-t'ien 青田 in nine hours, doing nearly 40 miles in all. I heard the boatmen several times make use of the expression "carry" over the rapids, and was somewhat puzzled to imagine how that could be done with a boat 40 feet long, and capable of carrying 10 tons of cargo at least. A yoke of bamboo is fastened across the bows of the boat, and two of the three boatmen jump into the water: placing the ends of the yoke across their necks, they thus guide the boat up the rapids, any other available hands meanwhile poling vigorously with the pikes. There is very little level land to be seen between Wênchow and Ts'ing-

* Read before the Society on the 28th March and 16th April, 1884.

t'ien, or even Ch'u-chow 處州; the river is enclosed on either side by hills ranging up to 1,000 feet high, with occasional spits or valleys of flat land between them. The general aspect of the scenery is not unlike that of the Foochow River, but terrace cultivation of the hills here is not so general, probably on account of their more precipitous nature. Only paddy land is taxable. The rapids are caused by the river running across broad shingly beds, and through them finding its way to the lowest levels; they resemble very much the rapids of the Ho-chou 合州 River, which runs from the Shen-si frontier down to Ch'ung-k'ing; but the water being usually shallow here, they can hardly be called in any way dangerous. There seems to be almost everything necessary provided by nature to encourage the development of foreign trade as far as Ch'u-chow; for the cost of boat-carriage is exceedingly low (say one shilling and six-pence a day for a good-sized barge manned by three men), and our own experience shows that, with a fair wind, Ts'ing-t'ien can be reached in a single afternoon. Travellers must content themselves with the rudest of flat-bottomed barges, protected from the weather by nothing but a strong coarse mat-housing, which, however, is tolerably waterproof; there is nothing available at all resembling the comparatively luxurious travelling boats of the Canton and Yangtsze Rivers. Ts'ing-t'ien is a picturesquely situated district city, subordinate to the Ch'u-chow Prefecture, and is built on a small area of slightly elevated ground, occupying the corner of a sand-bank between the hills. From its position it commands the river approaches in all directions, and of course the most prominent edifice is the *Lekin* Station, a sort of elevated watch-tower sweeping the river. A gunboat lies below, so that the chances of running the barrier successfully are reduced to a minimum. Here are levied dues on the timber rafts, bamboo wares, and fuel which come down the river, and on imports, especially salt, from W'enchow. There is a very pretty glen about 75 miles above Ts'ing-t'ien, called Shih-mên Tung or "Stone Gate Hollow." Part of the waterfall, of a type much resembling the average Scotch or Norwegian foss, can be seen from the river, and a quarter of a mile's walk brings the visitor to the foot of the fall, where are to be seen numerous tablets and inscriptions commemorating

the visits of distinguished persons. The most prominent amongst the trees observable on the way from Wênchow to Ch'u-chow are the "feathery" bamboos, the fir, the vegetable tallow tree, (here called *Chung-tsz* and *la-tsz* or "wax berry"), the camphor tree, (from which camphor is not here extracted), and occasionally the wood-oil tree. The banks present the same style of scenery all the way up, but above Ts'ing-t'ien the shingle beds are pleasantly relieved by turf, in places almost as smooth as an English lawn. The dialects of Ts'ing-t'ien and Ch'u-chow differ from that of Wênchow about as much as the broad Hunan dialects differ from ordinary *Kwan-hwa*. The dialect of Wênchow is the broadest, and the divergencies of the Ts'ing-t'ien or Ch'u-chow dialects are generally nearer approaches to the standard sounds. There seemed to be very little valuable cargo upon the river. Most of the upward-bound boats carried a very large package of salt, of the fine or local Wênchow manufacture. The Foochow salt, which costs four cash a catty at Wênchow, is loosely stowed in larger boats, and after being washed and ground down at Ch'u-chow, circulates in the Prefecture at about 10 to 12 cash. The downward craft seemed to be usually laden with firewood, charcoal, bamboo-wares, and other homely articles. Should this part of China ever become freely open to foreign trade, the way to utilize this river to the best advantage would be to construct light-draught steam-launches, with sufficient power to draw, each, half a dozen flat-bottomed junks, carrying, say, ten tons apiece. At this time of the year, when the autumn rice, (of which there has been an unusually plentiful crop), is all gathered in, there is nothing much to be seen in the way of cereals. The boatmen said, however, that the poppy is on the increase in Li-shui 麗水 (Ch'u-chow central) and Ts'ing-t'ien districts, as well as around Wênchow, and that the price of wheat (the once usual winter crop) has gone up in consequence. The young wheat, I noticed, was just appearing above the ground in many places.

The fifty miles from Ts'ing-t'ien to Hia-ho 下河, a mile below Ch'u-chow, occupied us four days, the weather being wet, and the rapids strong. There is no place of any importance on the way, unless the village of Hai-k'ou 海口 thirty miles above Ts'ing-t'ien, deserves to be singled out for mention as a larger village than the others.

There is river communication between the mountain district of King-ning 景寧 (Ch'u-chow Prefecture) and Ts'ing-t'ien by a river, locally called the "Small Stream," which joins the Wenchow river a mile or two above Ts'ing-t'ien. Hia-ho is the point of departure from Wenchow and Ch'u-chow for the Kin-hwa and Hangchow Prefectures, etc. On the afternoon of my arrival, I took a walk to and through the city of Ch'u-chow Fu and back. Though the examinations were going on, I passed along almost unnoticed, and the people I addressed were all very civil. A good deal of *Kwan-hwa* or Official Chinese is spoken here, as at Wenchow. The city is prettily situated on a spit formed by a bend in the river, which winds round the southern end of a small plain bounded on the other three sides by a range of hills.

The walls enclose an elevation surmounted by a showy temple. The interior of the city is a miserable collection of ruins and shanties, and there seems to be only one busy street or centre. The *Yamêns* are in the usual dilapidated condition. The circuit of the walls is three miles.

The porter and chair-bearer organization at Hia-ho appears to be excellently managed, and though I only gave notice of my intended departure after dark, I was on the road by nine o'clock next morning, with a written contract in my pocket, an official guild list of bearers' names, and an escort of police and soldiers.

We cut across the plain in a northerly direction for about five miles, and then commenced an ascent in the same direction for a second five miles to Yin-ch'ang T'ang 銀場塘, (Ngiang Dziah Doa), where we refreshed ourselves. Continuing our ascent for another six miles, by a good road paved with round stones, we reached a height of 2,000 feet, and put up for the night at K'ioh-king Kwan 却景館. The bearers were a dissolute-looking but good-humoured crew, and appeared anxious to give information. They were all very well posted in opium matters, and declared with one voice that Malwa (*hsiao-t'u*) was almost the only kind of opium smoked, by those who could in any way afford it, in the prefectural neighbourhood. The better quality costs a dollar for 2.4 Chinese ounces, and the inferior quality a dollar for 2.6 ounces. It all comes from Lan-ch'í and Hangchow,—that is, from Ningpo. There are several porters

regularly employed in conveying this opium from Lan-ch'i 蘭溪.

The local poppy has been grown during the past five years in several of the ten districts under Ch'u-chow, but in Ts'ing-t'ien and Tsin-yün 縉雲 more especially. In Li-shui and the more western districts it does not appear to have been so successful, as the people are said to be unskilled in lancing the capsule.

The crops in the ground in the plain were buckwheat, "hairy" beans (just being gathered), excellent cabbages, and occasional patches of tobacco, hemp, mustard, brinjals, peanuts, flax, etc. The maize and rice had been harvested. The mountain-road passed through scenery of the same kind as that enclosing the river we had ascended. By far the commonest tree was the tallow tree, and beyond this, with the bamboo, coir, fir, and pine, other trees were exceptional. All the villages were small, but the people, though poor-looking, were uniformly civil; in fact, I have never yet been in any part of China where less hostility was shown in the bearing of the people. No coal is burnt at Ch'u-chow, and I saw nothing and heard little of iron, which, however, is undoubtedly smelted at Ts'ing-t'ien and Yün-ho 雲和 districts.

There is river communication for rafts with Tsin-yün district city by a river which joins the Wenchow River, two miles below Ch'u-chow.

On the second day of our journey across the T'ao-hwa 桃花 range, we again travelled 50 *li*, or sixteen miles, our highest point being at T'ao-hwa Tung, or "Peach-flower Gap," 2,600 feet above Ch'u-chow. I estimated the height of the river at the last-named place at not more than 100 feet above the sea. There are villages with passable accommodation for man (but not beast, for there are none) every three miles across the pass, and sometimes oftener. The mountain scenery is decidedly fine, but hardly to be called grand. The river at the unwall'd district city of Tsin-yün is, according to the aneroid barometer, 600 feet higher than where it joins the Wenchow River, but, as the rapids are stated to be very "fierce," and no boats can navigate the stream, whilst the timber rafts for which it is available of course only descend, these 600 feet in 33 miles may be satisfactorily accounted for, always assuming that meteoro-

logical changes have not again disturbed barometrical calculations, as they did on the river.

The Taipings seem to have made great havoc with this neighbourhood, and possibly the rickety aspect of everything means only that recovery is yet incomplete. Near the junction of the Li-shui and Tsin-yün districts, on the south side of the Peach-flower Gap, there is a mountain tomb, where are promiscuously collected the bones of rebels and slaughtered innocents alike which were found lying unidentified around the spot. Prayers are offered at the grave thrice a year.

The Ch'u-chow Prefecture appears to supply itself with tobacco and tea, of which latter article, and tallow, it exports a certain quantity. The Ts'ing-t'ien tea is the best. Tobacco is also imported from Fu-kien; and cotton, of which the local supply is insufficient, from T'ai-chow Fu. Silk is produced, but not so as to form an industry, and supplements are imported from Hangchow. I doubt, however, if many people can afford this luxury. Bees' wax is produced, and used for greasing shoe-thread,—a hawker showed me a cake; and I bought excellent honey at Tsin-yün. The people eat a good deal of the sweet potato, and make a sort of cheap "bean"-curd out of the wild chestnut. The wayfarers corroborated the statement that no tax was paid on land other than wet, levelled, or paddy-lands, and gave as a reason that Liu Pè-wên 劉伯溫 (one of the worthies whose reminiscences we saw at the Stone Gate waterfall), had begged the Ming Emperor Hung Wu to remit it in perpetuity. This Liu, known as Kwoh-shih, or Kuin-shih, 國 or 軍師, appears to bear the same sort of repute here, as the local hero of antiquity, that the famous Chu-ko Liang 諸葛亮 does in Eastern Sz-ch'uen.

Ch'u-chow is the seat of a Brigadier, who has under him 1,200 soldiers, garrison and active. There are no "braves," or fighting soldiers. It appears to be the custom of respectable small landowners to become garrison soldiers, and even to buy the position, for the sake of the pay, but to arrange for substitutes in the rare event of being called out for active service.

The 25 miles from Tsin-yün district,—the water-shed of several rivers,—to Yung-k'ang 永康 district city were over an almost level plain, very richly cultivated and watered

by a river which rises somewhere in the Tsin-yün district: it is navigable for small boats from Yung-k'ang down to Kin-hwa Fu, and there for good-sized junks to Hang-chow.

The chief productions of Tsin-yün are tea, coir, and indigo, of which last we saw numerous pits and dyeing establishments. The rice crop had been plentiful this year, and rice was selling for a penny a pound. Cotton, silk, and opium are grown, but not in sufficient quantity for local requirements. We met cotton and lampwick grass coming overland from T'ai-chow 台州, and large quantities of native cotton cloth from Yü-yao 餘姚 district, near Ningpo. Iron-wares are obtained from Yün-ho district, and salt *viâ* Ch'u-chow. Malwa is smoked by all opium smokers who can afford it: it all comes *viâ* Lau-ch'ü, and its prices are slightly lower than at Ch'u-chow. Native opium is also imported from T'ai-chow. The land-tax collected is over Tls. 20,000, and for this purpose the people are made to pay in large cash at 2,480 the tael, the market rate being 1,800 cash the tael, or 1,150 the dollar. The unit of land measurement is 10, which means $\frac{100}{10}$, i.e. 10 fathoms or $\frac{1}{24}$ part of a *mu* of land,—one *mu* being $\frac{1}{2}$ acre. The statement about the freedom of certain places from tax on *T'ü* 地 or non-paddy land was qualified by the assertion that the exemption was confined to the district of Ts'ing-t'ien.

The city of Tsin-yün is a mere village of 1,200 houses, hemmed in at each end of the gulley in which it is situated by gates, and two morsels of wall, 100 yards long. It has two very fine stone bridges of nine and thirteen arches respectively, crossing the river at the south end of the town;—the river which communicates with Ch'u-chow, and takes its rise near the town of Hu-chên in the Tsin-yün district, 60 *li* to the east. It has also a smaller stone bridge at the north side, spanning the stream which runs down to Yung-k'ang. There are villages every ten miles, between Tsin-yün and Yung-k'ang, and they grow more considerable as the latter city is approached. Tsin-yün is said to have been terribly ravaged by the Taipings, and since the anarchy the people have become less tractable; but I saw no sign of hostility or sullenness anywhere. I found the dialects of Ch'u-chow and Tsin-yün sufficiently near that of Wênchow to enable me to follow tolerably well the conversation of

the bearers and villagers, and to make myself understood in cases where *Kwan-hwa* was unintelligible to them.

Hu-chên is 60 *li* or 20 miles east of both Tsin-yün and Yung-k'ang; it is thence 80 *li* to P'an-t'an-chên 潘灘鎮, which communicates by river with T'ai-chow, by way of Sien-chü 仙居 district city. Tsin-yün is distant 150 *li* by mountain-road from Ts'ing-t'ien.

Yung-k'ang is a wall-less district city under the Kin-hwa 金華 Prefecture. It was occupied for several years by the rebels, who utterly destroyed it. At present it consists of about 2,000 houses, many of which have a well-to-do aspect. It is distant from the prefectural city 40 miles by land, or 50 by water. Agriculturally, the district has fairly recovered from the effects of the rebellion, which carried off about 70 per cent of the population, but as yet its commerce and productiveness go no further than supplying local wants. Exactly the same account of opium was given as at Ch'u-chow and Tsin-yün. Malwa and T'ai-chow are both smoked, and a little is grown locally. The district supplies itself with grain, tea, and tobacco; imports salt from T'ai-chow and Ch'u-chow, and native and foreign piece goods *via* Lan-ch'i. Its land tax is considerable, and 2,300 and 1,700 large cash respectively are the official and business values of the tael. The clean dollar, which is current throughout Chêkiang, is worth 1,130 cash. As at Tsin-yün, the popular unit of land measurement is 10.

A very striking feature in Yung-k'ang is its two bridges; one, a short one of three spans, is entirely built over with houses; the other, built on eleven strong stone piers, is about 200 yards long, and is roofed in and battened in on both sides with palings which give it a most unusual and picturesque aspect. I was told that inside it is provided with stalls for the use of hawkers and bamboo merchants, and that all the bridges in Ch'u-chow prefecture to the south-west were built on the same principle.

The Yung-k'ang river takes a tortuous but due westerly course for 150 *li* to Kin-hwa Fu. To the south is a well-wooded range of hills, but to the north and west the country is more undulating and level. The willow, (hitherto rarely seen since leaving Wênchow), and fir line its grassy banks, and cover the country in great profusion, and, with the

autumn-red tints of the tallow-tree, give a singularly warm and park-like aspect to the neighbourhood. The river is shallow, and frequently unnavigable for anything but bamboo rafts; it is beset with harmless rapids, and after heavy rain runs very swiftly. There were great numbers of geese, duck, teal, wild cormorants, herons, and other waterfowl to be seen at every moment, and a sportsman would doubtless have pleasant experiences here. The same story was everywhere told about the T'aiplings; everyone had suffered in some way; had either been forced to labour, beaten, or kidnapped; had had his house burnt; his relations killed; or had seen his family starve to death.

T'ung-k'in 銅琴 is a considerable village on the left bank, six miles from Yung-k'ang under the joint jurisdiction, or on the joint borders of Yung-k'ang and Wu-i 武義 districts. Thence it is 10 miles by land to Wu-i district-city, which the river passes to the west at Ting-siang, a distance of two miles, and with which it communicates by a branch stream navigable for rafts and small boats up to the city. Immense rafts of pine are floated down from Wu-i to Lan-ch'i and Hangchow. Wu-i, which I could not see from the river, is said to be a walled city, smaller than Yung-k'ang, with no particular industry, having, as usual here, suffered much at the hands of the rebels.

The boundary between Wu-i and Kin-hwa districts, (the latter the head prefectural district of Kin-hwa Fu), lies 10 miles further down at a place called Ts'iao-ngan 礁岩. The river abounds with rapids and wild-fowl, and runs through a richly-wooded hilly country. In many places the current is guided by weirs thrown across the stream, into a narrow channel just large enough to admit one boat or raft. The rafts are often 200 yards long, but never more than 12 feet wide, and are so constructed that they can be divided or moored at any joint, and turned by long bow or stern sweeps in any direction. The boatmen said that there was plenty of opium grown in Wu-i, and that natives of T'ai-chow (the great opium-producing region) were usually engaged to manage the crop. Sugar of the red kind is produced in both Yung-k'ang and Wu-i, but the grey cane so common in Kiangnan is not found south-west of Lan-ch'i. All the raftmen and boatmen whom I addressed spoke excellent "southern" *Kwan-hwa*, but they conversed with each other

in a local dialect akin to those of south Chêkiang; but at last differing so much that both my servants and myself had to abandon the latter, except every now and then where an uncommon word had to be uttered in the two extremes in order to arrive at an uncertain mean. Salt from T'ai-chow at Wu-i costs from 24 to 30 cash the catty, six times the price of salt at Wênchow. As far as I could follow the tortuous course of the river, it trends rather northerly than westerly after entering the Kin-hwa district. Raft cargoes of cotton from Shao-ling by way of Siao-shan 蕭山 and I-ch'iao; also brine blocks (for bean curd) or the curdling lees of salt from Hangchow; piece goods from Yü-yao; grain for wine manufacture, &c., were met as we advanced. I tasted excellent wine of local distillation at various of the districts through which I passed.

Kin-hwa Fu is a finely situated city approached from the south by a venerable and lofty sandstone bridge of fifteen arches, which, for solidity and graceful construction, might compare not altogether unfavourably with the London bridges. In style it is precisely like the Roman bridges, such as one still sees in certain Spanish and French towns. I failed to gather the history of this monument, which must be interesting, but the fact that its construction is popularly ascribed to genii vouches for its age. The interior of the city was not much damaged during the rebel occupation, but the suburbs were destroyed, partly by the inhabitants themselves, in order to have a clear range from the walls; yet the exterior of the town has not been much rebuilt. Kin-hwa is celebrated all over the empire for its hams, fermented eggs, bean-curd, and sauce. I was told that it also produces ginseng for the Court. The only taxing-station in the prefecture appears to be at Lan-ch'i, where there are three stations guarding the exits and entrances of the trifurcated river.

The 20 miles by water, (50 $\frac{1}{2}$ by land), almost due west from Kin-hwa to Lan-ch'i, lie through a rather flat and not very visible country. A branch river runs south-west to Kin-hwa from I-wu 義烏 and Tung-yang 東陽, which two districts, like Wu-i, send down quantities of indigo and lumber to the great mart of Lan-ch'i. A small river, available for rafts, also runs south to parts of T'ang-ch'i 湯溪 district, from a point half way between Kin-hwa and Lan-ch'i.

I managed to solve here the knotty question of land measurement, which is after all simply a question of words. A *pa* or "span" is simply the local word for the tenth of a *kung* or "fathom" of 5.6 to 5.8 Chinese feet. Sixty "hundreds" (i.e. six thousand *pa*) make $2\frac{1}{2}$ *mu*, or half an acre, i.e. twenty four "hundreds" make one *mu*. But at Wênchow the *mu* consists of 24 *kung*. Hence it is evident that the *pa* is $\frac{1}{10}$ of a fathom. In Wênchow the common tenures take 5.8 Chinese feet to the fathom, whilst reclaimed shore-lands take but 5.6.

South-east of Kin-hwa, at a distance of eight or ten miles, the Fowl's-claw Hill 雞爪山 stands out prominently as a landmark, and enables one to fix the bearings of I-wu, Yung-k'ang, and Wu-i, which are respectively about north-east, south-west by west, and south-west of Kin-hwa. I-wu is distant by land 160 *li* from Yung-k'ang.

The great mart of Lan-ch'i, the Ch'ung-king of Chêkiang, both as to size, situation, and wealth, is the true key to the trade of the province. The city was utterly destroyed by the rebels, who wreaked their vengeance on this town and Yung-k'ang more especially on account of the resistance offered. Large junks are first seen at Kin-hwa, to which place and Lan-ch'i the produce of T'ang-ch'i, Tung-yang and the other districts just named is brought down on rafts or in boats. The prefecture of K'ü-chow sends immense quantities of paper, grain, indigo, lumber, bamboos, &c., down to Lan-ch'i; in good sized boats from Ch'ang-shan 常山, Lung-yu 龍游, and Kiang-shan 江山, or in rafts from K'ai-hwa 開化, whence there is land communication with Hwei-chow 徽州 Fu in An-hwei province. It is a significant fact that elsewhere in Kin-hwa Fu there are no tax-stations; hence it is, probably, that the Lan-ch'i traders, who import by excellent water routes from Hangchow and Ningpo, are enabled to sell to the Ch'u-chow prefecture so cheaply as to check the development of Wênchow. In any case, the T'ao-hwa range is sufficient to confine the sphere of Wênchow's trading ventures, as far as Chêkiang is concerned, to the two prefectures of Wênchow and Ch'u-chow. The pawn-shops and banks at Lan-ch'i are chiefly in the hands of An-hwei men, the "foreign goods" and native cloth shops are kept by Shao-hing men; the sugar, dates, fruit, and "south goods" trade

is in the hands of Fukien men; the pottery in those of traders from Kiangsi. The salt consumed at Lan-ch'i comes *via* I-k'iao from Shao-hing, and sells at 30 cash, or, further up at K'ü-chow 衢州, for about 35 cash. Lung-yu is 90 *li* distant from both Lan-ch'i and K'ü-chow Fu, which is 90 *li* from Ch'ang-shan, distant again from its subordinate town Hwa-pu 華埠 60 *li*.

Lan-ch'i seems to have quite recovered from the effects of the rebel devastation. I walked through the chief street, and was greatly struck by the solid aspect of everything around me. I also walked along part of the wall, and down several cross streets; everywhere the town seemed to be rebuilt or rebuilding. I noticed here the poles of the telegraph line between Hangchow and Foochow. As at Ts'ing-t'ien, Ch'ü-chow, and, in fact, nearly all Chinese towns, a pagoda stands at the corner hill which one must fetch in approaching the town. A pagoda may be said to have something like the same effect in regard to the rank of a Chinese town that a Russian church has in distinguishing a *selo* from a *derevnya*,—a parish-town from a market village.

In leaving Lan-ch'i and taking a northerly direction we have on our right the range of hills which shelter Kin-hwa on the north; the K'ü-chow prefecture is, I am told, comparatively level. There is from this point a marked difference in the aspect of the hills, which now become thinly wooded, and account for the large lumber export from the west. The boundary between Lan-ch'i district and Kien-tê 建德, the prefectural district of Yen-chow 嚴州 Fu, is at Shang-ho, a village 50 *li* distant from Lan-ch'i, and 40 from Yen-chow. This and other villages passed have a well-built and comfortable appearance. After entering the Kien-tê district, the left bank becomes mountainous, and the river is once more enclosed between hills.

The opening of Wênchow has greatly interfered with the revival of Lan-ch'i. The small steamer *Yungning* carries 300 tons of cargo and 100 passengers, both ways, thrice a month. Taking 10 tons as an average junk cargo, she may be said to divert from Lan-ch'i thirty junks. But as a junk would not make its average round voyage westward under a month, she may be said to divert the trade of 90 or

100 cargo junks, and the same number of passenger junks. The largest cargo junks on this river can carry 300 *wei* 克 or 900 peculs, say 50 tons, but this is only when the water is at its greatest flood height, during three or four uncertain months (usually spring) out of the twelve.

Yen-chow Fu is a well-situated town on the left bank of the river which communicates to the west with Hwei-chow Fu in An-hwei; it is also on the left bank of the Hangchow river, but a mile to the west. The distance by land to the great An-hwei mart of T'ên-ch'í 屯溪 is 400 *li* by land, or 500 by water, and the land distances are 160 *li* to Shun-an 淳安 district-city, 60 to Wei-p'ing 威坪, 20 to the frontier Kai-k'ow, 50 to Sing-tu 馨渡, 50 to Hwei-chow, and 50 to T'ên-ch'í. The Sui-an 遂安 and Shou-ch'ang 壽昌 rivers are navigable for rafts only.

My escort being several days behind me, preparing despatches, &c., I took the prefectural city by surprise, and walked round part of the wall, up the main street, and round to a second gate. There are no foreigners in this part of Chê-kiang, and probably few have ever appeared in this city dressed in western clothes; at any rate, my advent created some sensation, but not a single hostile word was uttered within my hearing, though I was unattended by any one but my own servants in unofficial dress, and though the people had not the remotest idea who or what I was. The area of the city is three parts in ruins, having been razed to the ground by the rebels; the business quarter at and near the Great South Gate, and the main street are well built and prosperous looking. I should estimate that there were 3,000 or 4,000 houses in the town, not counting the "villages" and farms, dotted about amongst the ruins and sheets of water. I believe the minimum circumference of a *Fu* city is fixed by law at 10 *li*, or 3 miles, so that the vacant spaces often met with in them are by no means conclusive evidence of decay.

The exports from the interior districts to Yen-chow are bees' wax from Sui-an, and indigo, lumber, and paper, from the same and the other districts. The prefecture is said by the boatmen to be hilly throughout.

At Yen-chow, I was told at the Kin-hwa guild that there were, besides, Kiangsi, Hwei-chow, Fukien, and Shao-hing guilds in the city. Malwa opium was quoted at

2.4 oz. the dollar, but the city practices adulteration (*ch'ung*) 冲 of the drug for interior consumption. Pistachio nuts 榧子 are extensively produced in the Kien-tê (prefectural) district, and the Ts'ih-li Lung 七里龍 region yields lime, charcoal, fuel, and excellent *Samlai* 鱗魚 fish.

There is no terrace cultivation of the rocky hills from Lan-ch'i northwards; they are covered with small brush-wood, and have the appearance of having been stripped of their timber.

The trade on the river, I should think, was equal to half that between Ch'ung-k'ing and Sha-shih 沙市, but the junks are smaller, run shorter distances, and take much less cargo at a time. Most of them are comfortably provided with passenger bunks. The reason why the Ch'ung-k'ing trade seems so enormous to many appears to me to be that the whole trade of Sz-ch'uan, and part of that of Yün-nan, Kwei-chow, Hu-nan, and Hu-peh with the east, is forced into one single channel between Fu-chow 涪州 and Sha-shih, a distance of 400 miles, whilst here it is better circulated.

A remarkable feature about the boats all along this river is that they are drawn by thin hemp cord, almost as slender as whipcord, instead of the bamboo lines so common in other parts of China. Two or three cords, each not more than the eighth of an inch in thickness, made out of the *Boehmeria nivea* or grass-cloth hemp, are sufficient to draw a large junk up the rapids.

A small stream, navigable at certain seasons for small boats and rafts, enters the Hangchow river at Si-k'ou 西口.

I saw fishing with cormorants going on at several places. Two or three boats form a triangle, and, beating the water between them, with yells drive their cormorants down; in a few seconds they rise, some with a fish in the mouth, which, on account of their throats being tied tight, they cannot swallow. The boatman grasps the fish, and rewards the bird with a morsel. It is a singular thing to find that here the heron (*lu-su*) is called the cormorant, and the cormorant (*ga-ng*) 衙鵝 the heron. But I believe there is a classical name *lu-tsz* 鸕鷀 for the cormorant which may perhaps be confused with *lu-sz* 鷺鷥, a heron.

The boundary between Kien-tê and T'ung-lu 桐廬

districts is at the Lu-sz Mên (or exit from the gorge enclosing the Ts'ih-li Lung fishery), a small fishing village on the right bank, 50 *li* from Yen-chow Fu. At this point we met a fleet of forty I-wu and Kiang-shan junks, bound upwards with cargoes of salt, cotton, beche-de-mer, &c. The country here opens out a little, and the river, when the water is low, divides for a few miles into two streams, enclosing an islet between them. A small rivulet from the interior of the Kien-tê district also joins the Hangchow river here.

T'ung-lu district city is unwallled, and appears to contain almost as many houses, and to be as well built as Yen-chow Fu; further, to have almost recovered from rebel ravages. A branch stream, joining the Hangchow River on the north side of T'ung-lu, brings down grain, charcoal, firewood, &c., from Fên-shui 分水 and Ch'ang-hwa 昌化 districts.

A little coal appears to be produced in Kiang-shan, whence it is brought to Lan-ch'î. Some is also produced in Kien-tê, where it is locally used in the lime production.

As far as I could gather no iron is obtained anywhere in the south, north, or west parts, except in the Ch'u-chow prefecture.

The lime is used here in pounding away (*ch'ung* or *t'ao*) the second shelling of paddy after the first husk has been ground off (*lung*). Gypsum is used for the same purpose at Shanghai, and oyster-shell lime at Canton; rice-husk ash is used at Wênchow; hence it is, perhaps, that rice is always so carefully washed before cooking. Yet in the north, I believe, rice is only once shelled by a process called *nien*, and no lime is used, though washing is still needed.

The boundary between the Yen-chow and Hangchow prefectures is at Tsa-ch'î 柞溪, (30 *li* from T'ung-lu), a considerable village on the right bank. The Tsa-ch'î river, opposite, is navigable up to Sin-ch'êng 新城 district town.

About 20 or 30 *li* further down, at some undefined spot near where the river takes a bend eastwards, is the boundary between the Sin-ch'êng and Fu-yang districts; and a small stream on the right bank gives access to parts of P'u-kiang 浦江 district when the water is high. The

boatmen say that a few *li* of land inwards on the right bank belong to the Fu-yang district.

Fu-yang 富陽 city is also unwalled, and appears to have recovered even more than T'ung-lu from rebel devastation. It has no special features distinguishing its trade. As at T'ung-lu, there is a salt *likin* office. It appears that salt pays a loading tax at Hangchow, a small examination fee at places *en route*, and *likin* at the place of consumption. General taxing stations are only found at Tung-kwan 東關, (Yen-chow Fu), and Lan-ch'i on the way to Kin-hwa city, and at K'ü-chow Fu and Kiang-shan in the west.

Below Fu-yang, a small stream from the country joins the Hangchow river, and a few miles further east the latter widens out into what looks like a beautiful lake six miles in width. The river then narrows and turns suddenly west at Wên-chia Yen 聞家堰.

Before reaching the true outskirts of the provincial capital by water from the south, a straggling suburb of two miles in length is passed to the left; then there is a miserable apology for a wharf, whence it is another mile to the nearest gate. From this wharf a free ferry, consisting of a score or so of large boats, runs every few minutes to the opposite bank, about a mile across.

The famous western lake, a mile or two outside the north-west gate is, in spite of recent devastation, a beautiful spot, and the eccentric Admiral and General P'êng Yü-lin has fitted up an island in the midst of it where he lives a sort of hermit-priest life when not on circuit. The area enclosed by the walls of Hangchow must rank with the areas of Peking and Nanking, though the walls are not nearly so substantial. The main street runs between three and four miles in an almost straight line. The circuit of the walls is variously estimated at from 20 to 25 miles. Previous to the rebellion, it is said, even the enclosed hills were covered with houses, but, though rebuilding is rapidly going on, scarcely a third of the area is yet filled in, and there is a filthy slovenliness about municipal and sanitary arrangements. Notwithstanding this, I think that Hangchow as it stands must, (with perhaps the exception of Ningpo, which I have only touched at), be the most populous city in Chêkiang. The Europeans seem to be congregated in

the northern or least recovered portion, called the "lower" city, and during my walks and rides there I never heard an uncivil word. When paying my official visits, however, in the Tartar quarter, (a small walled enclosure at the north end), and in the upper city, or busy portion, I heard the words *Yang Kwei-tsz* pretty often. Though the missionaries say that a local brogue is spoken, I heard nothing but *Kwan-hwa*, nor could I distinguish the language of the local bannermen from that of the Chinese. Both seem to have merged into an impure sort of "southern mandarin." There are 8,000 opium dens in the town; and about 20 wholesale opium houses. The daily trade in the drug, I was told, reached \$20,000 a day, and is apparently nearly all in Malwa, some coming from Shanghai, but most from Ningpo.

Though this is a country of silk, it seemed to me that very few had silk on their backs, and indeed the city is poor. The *Yamêns* are little better than our lumber-rooms or out-houses.

I noticed the *Shên-pao* being taken into several *Yamêns* and hawked in great numbers about the streets; this paper has made itself a high reputation throughout the northern, western, and central provinces.

From the opposite bank a raised path runs 10 *li* to the market town of Si-hsing 西興, under the Siao-shan district. Thence a "blind" canal passes through Siao-shan city (10 *li*) and Ch'ien-ch'ing Chên 錢清鎮 (40 *li*) to Shao-hing Fu (60 *li*), in all 40 miles. There are various branch canals to I-ch'iao 義橋, 60 *li*, Wên-chia Yen, 30 *li*, and Pai-ho Ch'ang 白鶴塢, 35 *li*. Before approaching Hangchow, I had noticed we were getting into a mulberry region, and I rode through some very dense mulberry groves on the Western lake. The country quite changes on the Shao-hing side; for the first ten miles, there is hardly anything to be seen but rice, for which (and its wine) the prefecture is famous. No opium, accounts tend to shew, has been grown in the five northern prefectures; Ningpo finds cotton to pay better; Shao-hing, rice; the others, silk. Yet, during the past two years, the poppy has been planted in Shang-yü 上虞 district.

The district-city of Siao-shan is traversed by the canal which passes in and out by water-gates under the walls, and

has a very picturesque effect. Thence to Shao-hing Fu is 100 li , and branch creeks intersect and irrigate the country in every direction. This is without exception the fattest stretch of land I have ever seen in China or elsewhere. The autumn crop of rice is gathered in two relays, called the early and late kinds, one six weeks or two months later than the other. Strange to say, the quality of the land in the Shan-yin 山陰 district differs so much from that in Siao-shan, that there the rice crops are again reaped considerably later. Shan-yin and Kwei-chi 會稽 are the prefectural districts, and seem to reek with richness. Substantial villages and market-towns, many as large as the more Western district-cities, succeed one another at distances of half-a-mile, and are to be seen thickly dotted over the country. There being no danger of drought, husbandry is mathematically exact and minute, cultivation being carried to the very water's edge. With the exception of the substantial stone pathways between the cities, there seems to be little means of intercommunication except by boat, and these boats are externally adorned with such consummate art that they have the appearance of being made of fine porcelain. Large and small, they are all fitted up with rain-proof telescope mats, and can be used as dwellings, cargo boats, or passenger and pleasure barges; they fully merit the name of gondola; many of the small ones are worked with the feet, and thousands are passed during a day's travel. The country realizes to the full the "willow pattern" idea of China. Stone bridges of elegant shape are seen or passed every few moments; remarkable arches and monuments are thickly strewn about; the willow, tallow, soap, and camphor trees adorn the graves and villages; and all the ideal Chinese scenes, such as goose and duck breeding, weir and basket fishing, &c., recur at every moment. The country is flat, but the graves (which waste a great deal of good land) and village-clusters deprive the landscape of monotony. Towards Shao-hing the hills to the right are approached more closely, and it is thence that the excellent stone is obtained which seems so cheap and plentiful. The highroad canal runs both round and through Shao-hing, and the passage of 10 li through the busiest part of the town affords an excellent opportunity of inspecting it at ease. I noticed the words "Holy Protestant Chapel" largely painted upon

a prominent corner house, and I was surprised to see a "Widow's arch" of the purest type dedicated in French to Lieut. Le Brethon de Caligny, of the French Navy, and about 20 of his compatriots, who "died in delivering the Province" in 1862, 1863, and 1864. Shao-hing is 45 $\frac{1}{2}$ in circuit, but only the north portion seems to have recovered from the occupation of the rebels, who were here and at Siao-shan for three years,—probably the three above enumerated. It is said that the southern portion furnishes enough paddy to feed the city for three years. There is little about here beyond the dilapidation of cities to shew that the Taipings damaged the country, unless it be that great potential wealth and comfort are accompanied by a maximum of rickettiness and filth in household arrangements; yet some well finished temples, ancestral halls, and even houses are to be seen. The boats are the most desirable resting spots for a European, and next to them (if they were only dry) would be the open paddy fields, notwithstanding the way in which they are fertilized. The winter crops are beans, vegetables, and wheat. The land-tax is very heavy, about 330 cash (in practice) the *mu*, with $\frac{3}{10}$ of a pint of rice, commuted for 35 cash.

Cultivators' rack-rents range from 250 to 300 catties of paddy (equals half the weight of rice) a *mu*, that is, nearly one half of an average harvest. The landlord pays the tax, and tenant pays for the beasts and implements.

It is a remarkable thing that the rebels have nowhere succeeded in destroying the pagodas; every city I have visited has one or more, those of Hangchow and Shao-hing being the finest; in many cases great damage has been done, but this only gives them a quainter appearance of antiquity.

Shao-hing produces large quantities of cotton and tea for export, but is of course chiefly noted for its wine; and I noticed several wine-jar potteries. Its trade with Lan-ch'i is by way of I-ch'iao, and of course the canal leads to Ningpo. The telegraph wires are laid double between Hangchow and Shao-hing, but only single between Shao-hing and Ningpo. I observed an advertisement by a telegraph agency in a village near Shao-hing, offering codes at 20 cents each, and undertaking to send messages as far South as Swatow, besides Nanking, the Northern towns, and foreign countries; the wires are along the canal the whole way,

invariably passing to the rear of villages, and apparently avoiding as far as possible private land.

The northern shore of Shao-hing produces excellent salt, which (apparently) is both sun-dried and boiled before it is consumed; the flats are under official management, and the local price varies from 20 to 30 cash the catty, according to weather. Ningpo salt which is only dried in the sun seems partly to command the more eastern markets.

About 70 *li* from Shao-hing there is a canal to the south, which leads 20 *li* to, and ends in, a market-town called Hao-pa 蒿埧, under the Shang-yü district; at the other end of the town a creek joins the tidal river running down to Pê-kwan Chên 百官鎮 near the coast (20 *li*), from Ch'êng district city (120 *li*). In a very few moments the broker at Hao-pa provided me with a boat and a written contract. This broking system in Chêkiang seems to work very well and advantageously for all parties. The rice crops of Shang-yü district are liable to destruction by high tides, wherefore the $\frac{3}{10}$ pint of commuted rice tax has been remitted for many generations.

The reason why a canal is not cut through the few hundred yards which separate the tidal river and the canal might seem to be that the level of the former was originally much higher, and as the sea water, which is not usually found above Pê-kwan, occasionally breaks the dykes, it might ruin a fine rice country. Yet it seems that Ningpo boats can struggle over the two banks which separate the Shang-yü and Kwei-chi water systems, and that there is still no risk of tidal floods there. On the other hand, the Si-hsing end of the canal is higher than the river at Hangchow. The problem of the respective levels is one which, therefore, I am compelled to abandon; further enquiry is necessary. Small steam launches could do excellent service on these canals.

The river which runs from Ch'êng 嵒 district passes through a hilly country, in the low parts of which the tallow and mulberry trees are the most prominent objects. The young wheat was everywhere springing up between the latter; the hills are fairly wooded with pine, fir, willows, bamboo, and camphor wood. As far as I could make out, the water level is at times both much higher and much lower than when I was on it. The breadth is

very irregular, and there are numerous loops, islands, and short creeks. Judging from the amount of scum and *débris*, and the facts that the country is muddy and that the rains have been incessant for a month, I presume that I witnessed a moderate freshet. There was water enough everywhere for good-sized steamers. Tall fresh-water grass is here cultivated as fuel; the same sort, grown on salt-water land, is used as string for packing, &c.

Ch'êng district produces large quantities of a vegetable called *pai chu* 白朮, eaten when young as food, and used as a drug when old; also pears, silk, tobacco, and tea, all of which are exported. The imports are "South goods," salt fish, rice, and pulse. The city is walled, and has been almost entirely rebuilt since the rebel occupation.

There are numerous prosperous villages and market towns on the banks, amongst which may be named San-kai on the joint frontiers of Kwei-chi, Shang-yü, and Ch'êng districts.

Navigation, except for a few rafts, ceases at Ch'êng city, but in advancing South-east towards T'ai-chow we kept one branch in sight up to Pan-chu 班竹, a mountain village 40 *li* further on than Sin-ch'ang 新昌 city, to which district it is subordinate. Another branch runs down from somewhere in the Tung-yang district, and meets the first mentioned just below Ch'êng city. The Sin-ch'ang branch is crossed by a ferry by travellers leaving the town of Ch'êng *hien* in a southerly direction, and again, about 25 *li* further on, shortly after passing the Sin-ch'ang border.

Sin-ch'ang is a snugly situated city looking like a flat square box set down between the spurs of two hills; our road skirted the walls, over which we could see that the town was fairly well filled with buildings. We were told that not much opium was grown in the neighbourhood, and that barely two ounces of Malwa were purchasable for a dollar. The paddy crop was in, and the young wheat rapidly coming up in its place; the millet (here seen for the first time) was gathering; here also for the first time in China, and subsequently in Hwang-yen district, I saw the water-chestnut (*Eleocharis tuberosus*) growing in large quantities.

The mountain scenery, which is constant in its kind throughout the province, becomes exceptionally pretty

between Sin-ch'ang and Pan-chu; the latter place is 500 feet above the plain. The *fêng* or maple tree in its autumn yellow was an especially ornamental feature in the landscape. There was nothing of particular interest to note *en route*, except that lampwick grass was being taken from and cotton to T'ai-chow in large quantities, the latter partly for distribution, perhaps, in the Kin-hwa prefecture.

I should mention that just after entering the Sin-ch'ang district I saw a proclamation regarding the new telegraph line, issued in the joint names of the magistrate and lieutenant in command: it stated that the object was to facilitate the transmission of military intelligence for the better security of the people's hearths and homes. Graves and private property would not be disturbed.

The road which leads in a south easterly direction from Pan-chu over the hills to the plain of T'ien-t'ai 天台 crosses three ridges, the highest of which is not more than 1,200 feet above the plain. A manifest difference in the appearance and character of the people is perceptible the moment the limits of the T'ai-chow prefecture, to which T'ien-t'ai is subordinate, are reached. They are both sturdier in build and manlier in bearing than any other of the inhabitants of Chê-kiang amongst whom I have been. At the same time they are inclined to be curious and insubordinate, and I should think would require but little provocation to conduct themselves disagreeably.

A small but, at least after the rain, rapid river emerges from the hills and runs through Ts'ing-ch'i, 清溪 (the port of T'ien-t'ai), where it is crossed by a very substantial stone bridge perhaps 200 yards in length, directly after which it joins the Sien-chü 仙居 river. I saw no opium, and was told that the district of Hwang-yen 黃岩 was the one which produced most in T'ai-chow Fu. The plain seemed to be planted everywhere with wheat and winter vegetables.

The distance from T'ien-t'ai by land to Tung-yang is 160 *li*: the distance between T'ien-t'ai and T'ai-chow Fu is officially and really 90 *li*, but popularly 120. I find that one hour is average good time for travelling 10 *li* by land in China, and I was here on the move nine hours. Ten *li* are often called a *p'u*, which term may be compared with the German *Stunde*, as often meaning the time occupied by the traveller irrespectively of the actual distance traversed.

A mountain "three miles high" may be a mountain from 1,000 feet to 10,000 in height, and from a quarter of a mile to three miles along the usual road from the foot to the summit, but which takes a man an hour to mount on foot.

The journey from T'ien-t'ai to T'ai-chow may also be made by water, but the river was so swollen that no boats could get up to the town during the two days I was there. Sien-chü district, 100 *li* further up, is to be reached by two-ton boats, and P'an-t'an (previously mentioned when at Tsin-yün), 50 *li* still higher, by rafts. The river scenery, hilly and well wooded, is very pretty, and the ferry has to be used twice on the way. Sien-chü appears to be distant by land only 45 *li* from Ta-ching and about 120 *li* from Yo-ch'ing. This town (T'ien-t'ai) imports silk from Ch'eng and Sin-ch'ang districts; it appears to be the extreme limit to which Malwa opium reaches, and even then it is barely known to be purchasable in the town. T'ai-chow salt, which costs 3 cash on the coast, and 7 at Hwang-yen, sells at 15 or 16 cash a catty at T'ien-t'ai. Tea seems to be the chief production of the district. I was told that iron was obtained from Chu-chi 諸暨.

T'ai-chow Fu is a finely situated city, the houses of which are built round one side of a hill whose toe almost cuts the town in two; the walls enclose part of the heights behind. The rebels did no damage during the first year of their occupation, as the inhabitants had opened their gates to them and offered supplies of food; but disputes arose later on; plundering took place in the villages; and the Eastern part of the town was subsequently partly destroyed. The rebels by all accounts do not seem to have much injured the country parts of T'ien-t'ai and Lin-hai, (the T'ai-chow prefectural district); at all events these have now the appearance of being very thickly populated with (for China) well-to-do communities. The river at T'ai-chow is crossed by two bridges of boats, and then takes a bold sweep north, after which its course down to Kiang-k'ou 江口 (the port of Hwang-yen) is exceedingly tortuous, as it passes through pleasant hill and village scenery. The effect of the tides is felt up to within 20 *li* of T'ai-chow; 40 *li* below T'ai-chow I moored whilst the tide

ran suddenly and rapidly up for three hours, rising perhaps 12 feet during that time, after which it carried us down 16 or 18 miles in three hours. The next tide took us up from Kiang-k'ou to Hwang-yen. Steam gunboats can at all times get up to Kiang-k'ou, but except when swollen by floods, the river between Kiang-k'ou and T'ai-chow is only navigable by small boats. The Hwang-yen river is hardly navigable at all 10 miles above the town.

The notorious bandit Chin-man 金滿, who is often known by his adopted surname of Hwang 黃, is still in the mountains, although he has nominally given in his submission, and draws \$300 a month from the Prefect's chest for the support of himself and his immediate followers. At the same time he now refrains from plunder, and has nominally surrendered, and keeps the bandit class well in hand. As he is a sort of Robin Hood in his ways, and always treats the poor kindly; the rich and official classes are the only ones who in the least fear him.

There is an extensive and rich plain between Hwang-yen and the boundary of Yo-ch'ing 樂清, after which two ridges, each of a few hundred feet in height, have to be crossed. It was too early for opium, (which is planted a month later than in Sz-ch'uan), but large tracts of land were being prepared for it. Wheat, rape, and vegetables of all sorts were springing up, and water chestnuts, tallow-berries, and rice were stored or storing. Hwang-yen is famous for its oranges, and it also produces an inferior sort of silk stuff. The celebrated Wênchow tribute oranges are grown from slips of one kind grafted on to trees of another dwarf variety.

It is 75 $\frac{1}{2}$ from Hwang-yen to the walled town of Ta-ching 大荆 (under Yo-ch'ing district), which place is distant from T'ai-ping 太平 district city 80 $\frac{1}{2}$. Hwang-yen city is also distant from T'ai-ping 80 $\frac{1}{2}$. Hung-ch'iao 虹 or 洪橋 is 60 very long $\frac{1}{2}$ from Ta-ching, and Chu-hsü 竹嶼 (on the coast) is half the way from Hung-ch'iao to Ta-ching, which in all is 30 $\frac{1}{2}$. Ta-ching and a place called Wu-yung, farther south, produce considerable quantities of iron, but no coal. Tea, however, is the chief staple, and "tea-tax assistant sub-prefect" is the title of the civil official at Ta-ching. Later on, I was informed, the whole country would be covered with the poppy.

Three inconsiderable ridges have to be crossed between Ta-ching and the city of Yo-ch'ing; the road skirts the coast inlets, and a considerable river has to be crossed 20 *li* to the north of Hung-ch'iao; this river appears to communicate with Wu-yung, the iron-producing spot above mentioned, 30 *li* distant eastwards from the ferry.

The fine range of mountains known as the Yen-tang 雁蕩 Hills is left on the right, and either Yo-ch'ing or Ta-ching may be made the base of an exploring trip amongst the numerous temples and remarkable crags which have obtained a holiday seeker's celebrity in this region. A great portion of the coast-land about here has been enclosed by strong dykes, and reclaimed for agricultural purposes. Considerable tracts are also given up to mussel, cockle, and clam breeding. Both these descriptions of land add largely to the revenue collection of the district, and are exceedingly profitable to the owners. A creek leads from Hung-ch'iao to Yo-ch'ing, but, as it is interrupted in several places by banks and dams, it is not of much commercial importance.

From Yo-ch'ing to Kwan-t'ou 管頭, a small town belonging to Yo-ch'ing, and situated on a loop of the Wênchow river, it is 30 *li* to the city of Wênchow. This journey from Yo-ch'ing may be made either by canal or road, but the canal is blind at the Kwan-t'ou or port end, and is only used by small boats.

Yo-ch'ing city is finely situated near the end of a tunnel-like valley, and at the foot of the Yen-tang range of hills. The circuit of the new city is double the size of the old walls, which occupy another site a mile further to the north, and are inhabited only by a few stragglers. The country here abounds with handsome women, who are very neatly dressed, and all wear a comely apron made out of a sort of "Scotch" plaid. No traces whatever of the rebel occupation are now visible at or near Hwang-yen, Ta-ching, or Yo-ch'ing. Prosperous villages succeed each other along the road with great frequency.

Wênchow city itself was never entered, although the suburbs were partly in rebel hands. The numerous canals, which intersect the city and communicate with the river and tidal creeks, enabled the inhabitants to obtain external supplies of food on the one hand, and to keep the besiegers at a harmless distance on the other.

We did not enter the T'ai-p'ing district. This produces rice for export, opium, tea, and a small quantity of silk.

The stretch of country between T'ai-chow Fu and Wên-chow Fu is still a good deal harassed by local bandits. On the road I met the Hwang-yen magistrate, who turned out to be an old Kewkiang acquaintance. He was escorted by 80 soldiers armed with rifles, and informed me that the country was so thickly populated that the improvident classes had scarcely any resource but plunder.

It is 80 *li* from Yo-ch'ing city by land and water to the island and sub-prefectural city of Yü-hwan 玉環. It is 60 *li* by either land or water to Kwan-t'ou; and 90 *li* by land to Fêng-lin 楓林.

To sum up: it will be seen from the above account that the province of Chê-kiang is or might be almost self-supporting in all commodities except coal, iron, and opium, of which last two she still imports perhaps a good half of her total consumption: coal she does not much use, nor perhaps require, being specially rich in lumber. The western half has recovered from the effects of the rebellion, whilst the eastern half still requires time.

My journey was so arranged that I actually visited all the prefectural towns, except the two to the extreme north, and one to the extreme west. These I propose to visit on future occasions. In addition there remain to be inspected the communications with Fukien in the south, and Kiang-si and Anhwei in the west. I wish also, if possible, to examine the Zik'a tribes of western Ch'u-chow prefecture. It will be seen that at least a glimpse has been obtained at all the arteries of the province, with the exception of those named, and that the command of Ningpo, Shanghai, and Hangchow (including Lan-ch'i) over all but the Ch'u-chow and Wênchow prefectures is quite natural and legitimate, as the T'ao-hwa range to the west and the Yen-tang range to the east are sufficient to exclude Wênchow from competition with Ningpo in the K'ü-chow, T'ai-chow, and Kin-hwa prefectures.

Under the head of Ningpo, a map of Chêkiang will be found in the Annual Customs Trade Reports for 1881 and 1882. In this there are some important errors and omissions. The river which runs from King-ning 景寧 to T'sing-t'ien 青田 is not given. The city of Yung-k'ang

永康 is omitted, and the river which runs from Yung-k'ang past Wu-i 武義 to Kin-hwa 金華 is made to end in the sand. There is no such branch river as that given south of I-wu 義烏; it should branch off at Kin-hwa; and it is to be doubted whether the left and right bank river boundaries of Yen-chow Fu and Kin-hwa Fu respectively are correctly given. The space distances of places between Hangchow and Shao-hing 紹興 are disproportionate, and the vast vacant space south of T'ai-chow 台州 exists not, or belongs to the northern part of Wên-chow Fu, the towns of which have been cramped into an excessively reduced area. The Hwang-yen 黃岩 tidal river is of no size or importance above Hwang-yen, and is only navigable for small boats as far as Ta-ch'i 大溪 a few miles above that city. Hou-so 後所 is not south, but a mile to the north of Yo-ch'ing 樂清, (not Lê-ch'ing).

Comparing the size of Chê-kiang with that of England, and considering the comparatively small number of large towns in the former, I am inclined to think that the population of 11,000,000, officially reported by the governor, is not far from the mark; more especially as, in the east portion at least, quite half the population must have perished during the rebellion. Unlike what is the case in An-hwei, no influx of immigrants from other provinces has taken place.



ARTICLE III.

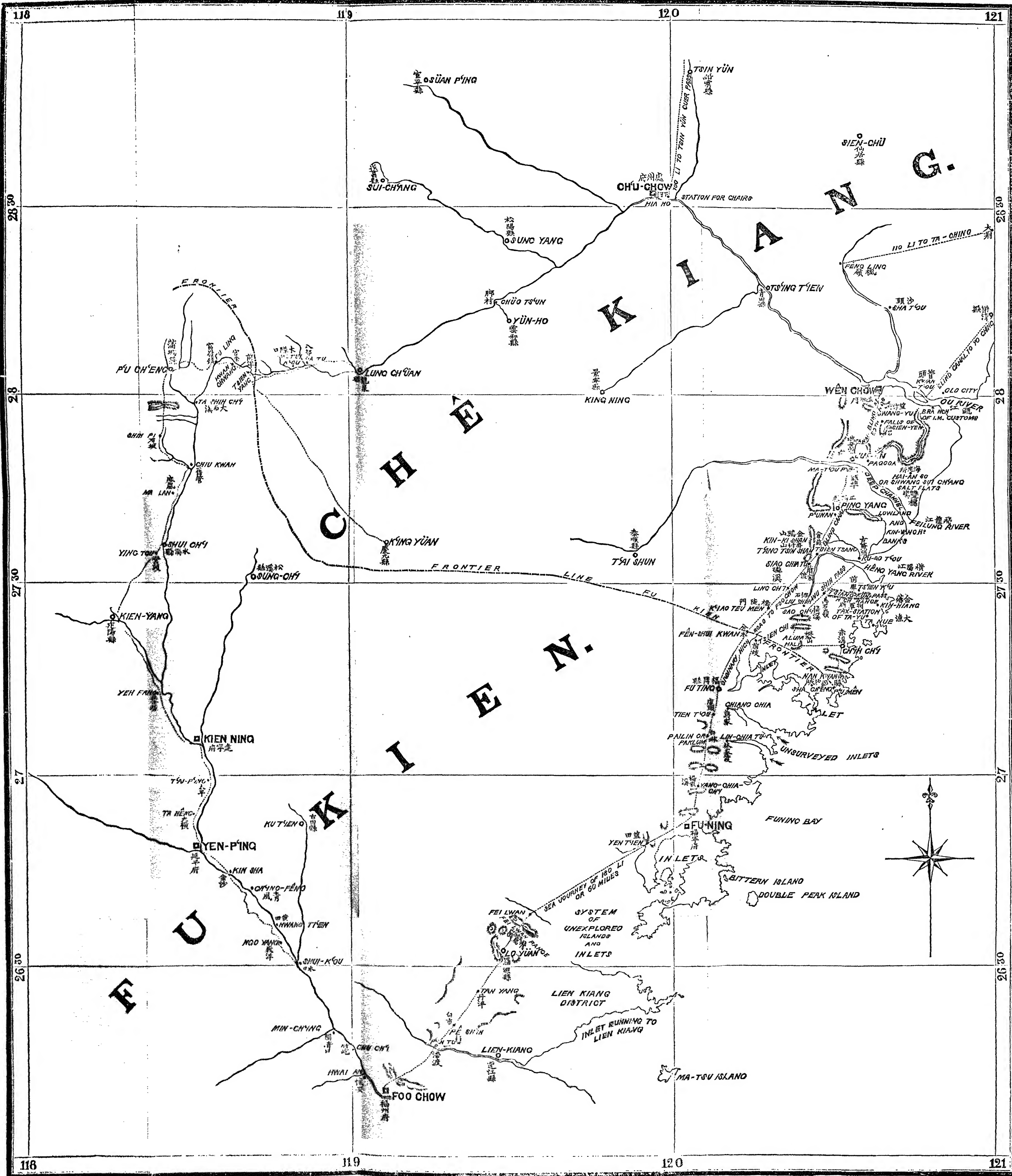
A JOURNEY IN FUKIEN.

BY

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I LEFT the Prefect's Bridge of Wênchow on the 11th of January 1884, bound for the south. Poling the boat for half a mile through a noisome liquid which looked like dye-wash or ink, we emerged at the water-gate adjoining the Small South Gate of the city, and followed the wall to the Great South Gate. Then, turning once more south, we continued in this direction past the Shan Ch'ien Hill 山前 with its inclined pagoda, known as the Sun T'a 巽塔, for twenty *li*, as far as the market town of Pai-siang 白像 (with a pagoda), after which we turned south-west, passed through the hills which encircle Wênchow to the south, and continued ten *li* due south to Wang-yu 望游, the last town in the Yung-chia 永嘉 district, and found ourselves in a small valley surrounded by rather bare but picturesque hills, ranging up to 1,000 feet in height. The country is very thickly populated, and admirably provided with fresh water canal intercommunications: it is not unlike the rich flat stretch between Hangchow and Shao-hing, but hardly so teeming with fatness. The most striking novelties are the innumerable orange groves, producing the celebrated *Ou kan* 甌柑, or bitter tribute-orange. The fruit of the Cantonese *Kêm kwêt* 金橘 (cumquat) is sown in the ground, and slips of the *Kan* or *Citrus Margarita* are grafted upon the young roots: the result is the large bitter orange, no higher than a gooseberry bush. If encouragement were given to this trade by the steamers, and care taken in transshipping the fruit at Shanghai, and getting it to Tientsin before the close of the river, an enormous trade with Mongolia would inevitably follow; but the speculators have been discouraged by the carelessness of their agents,



who have more than once left large speculative consignments to rot in Shanghai. At Wênchow the oranges cost about a penny a pound, but the Mongols (and indeed the northerners generally) have so high an opinion regarding the febrifuge effect of this fruit that they will pay even sixpence apiece at times. The stalks are often lime-washed to keep off the insects, and straw is frequently inserted in the fork of the tree as an encouragement to spiders to spin there, and not about the leaves, which the web causes to wilt.

The canals swarm with innumerable small craft, and besides there are fairly comfortable *hwa ch'uan* 花船, i.e. passenger or "pleasure" boats, and *hang ch'uan* 航船, or cargo boats, carrying also passengers between Jui-an 瑞安 and Wênchow at 40 cash, or twopence, a head. These last invariably run at night, and during the busy or winter season four leave each end every evening with the greatest regularity. One centime or less a mile is certainly cheap travelling. The chief cargo from Jui-an is P'ing-yang 平陽 tea of very excellent quality.

A considerable amount of fishing is done on these canals in the same way as at Ich'ang 宜昌. A dozen small boats, each worked by a lad, move to a position in Indian file; they then wheel across; a man in the bow of each casts a large net into the water, and several other boatmen occupy themselves further down with beating the water; the roach-like fish rush towards the barrier of nets, and are taken in great numbers.

South-east from Wang-yu lies Shwang-sui Ch'ang 雙穗塲, a salt-producing district from which a superior kind of fine white sea salt is obtained: it sells for about 16 cash a catty at Wênchow. Wênchow, Shwang-sui, and Jui-an are all 70 *li* from one another. Convenient free-ferries, consisting of a flat square barge, large enough to hold a dozen men, with ropes attached to each bank and to each end of the boat, enable passengers to pull themselves across from village to village. Boats going south have to be poled or "*yuloed*" to a point about 10 *li* from Wênchow, after which there is an admirable embankment and towing-path all the way to Jui-an. The canal looks more like a broad clear river than anything else. Not much is to be seen at this time of the year in

the way of crops, as, except where occupied by orange groves, the land is all ploughed up in readiness for seed. Splendid old specimens of banyan trees are passed at intervals, some of which are deeply rooted into the stones, and have the appearance of being many centuries old.

Thirty-five *li* from Wênchow, and about a mile from the main canal, is the picturesque town and congeries of monasteries called Sien Yen 仙岩, or "Fairy Rock." This name is derived from a picturesque grotto and waterfall behind the town. I walked through the town with two of my own servants only in plain dress as escort, and the people behaved very well: only a few boys (as they do even at Wênchow) shouted out *Fa Nang* (Fan Jên, 番人). Shortly after passing Sui-fêng 隨風, 40 *li* from Wênchow, the canal or river takes a turn to the right or south-west; then a pagoda looms out from a hill to the west, and the canal bends sharply round in that direction, pierces the hills, and runs through water-gates into Jui-an city. The canal also passes round by the East Gate to the South Gate, where it ends: twenty yards further is the sea. I had a particular reason for passing through and staying at Jui-an; for no one had, at least for some time, actually spent a night in the town. I put up at a small inn conveniently situated on the narrow strip separating the end of the canal from the bay, and was very hospitably received. In other respects the choice was undesirable, for passengers arriving by canal and river or sea clamoured all night long for admission in the first instance to our inn, and kept us all awake. There had been an attempt made by some boys to get up a hooting as I removed from my house-boat to a small sampan outside the first water-gate, but this display of emotion was promptly suppressed by the elders.

The Magistrate had evidently taken satisfactory precautions to prevent any mobbing in my case. Though I walked along the street, and stood prominently in the high stern of the ferry-boat, the large concourse of people uttered no uncivil word in my hearing.

The Fei-yün Kiang 飛雲江, or Jui-an river, runs down from T'ai-shun 泰順 district city, 400 *li* to the west, and broadens out into an arm of the sea below Jui-an. The breadth of the river opposite the city is half a mile, and a rapid tide renders the passage of the huge clumsy ferries

a very tedious operation, except at low or high water. It took us an hour to cross. Seventy *li* below the city is Hai-an So 海安所, the territorial name of the salt-producing flat Shwang-sui Ch'ang. Fine salt from the dépôt sells for 8 cash in Jui-an, and Fukien salt (which only costs one cash where it is produced in Fukien) for 6 cash.

Jui-an seems to produce for export nothing but water-chestnuts, fruits, and of late opium, which is of superior quality, and was quoted to me at four ounces the dollar. Foreign opium is purchasable, but very little known or smoked. The mountain district of T'ai-shun sends down nothing but bamboo, lumber, fuel, &c. Jui-an is of course supplied with foreign goods from Wênchow, with which place its water and land communications are perfect. The P'ing-yang teas also come this way, but the vast alum export is from Ch'ih-ch'i 赤溪, a port further south. The boatmen I spoke to at Jui-an said that no steam gunboats had ever been up the river to the city, but at high water I think large steamers could undoubtedly come up; that is, supposing that bars and banks lower down would not prevent or hamper navigation. The water is so muddy that there must be a great deal of silt.

Walking half a mile from the ferry, we came to another blind canal at Ma-t'ou Pu 馬頭埕, and took sampans to P'ing-yang city (80 *li*). The small valley between the two cities is surrounded by considerable hills on all sides but the East, and is quite the characteristic Chêkiang picture, an enclosed valley ten or twenty miles in diameter. It would not be too bold to describe the whole province as a succession of these, each one being a district or a well-defined fraction of one. The P'ing-yang valley is a repetition of the country from Wênchow,—flat, hedgeless, rich fields, and perfect water communications. We made the journey in open sampans in three hours. The city is prettily situated at the foot of two lofty hills which slope down on each side to a *col* or pass, surmounted by a pavilion or pagoda to the south of the town. The walls do not appear to be more than a mile or a mile and a half in circumference. The dividing line between Jui-an and P'ing-shan districts is at T'u-shan T'ou 土山頭, almost a mile from the tidal river at Jui-an. Barley (for making sugar-cake) and rape were the chief crops just sown; the boatmen said that the cultivation of the

poppy was rather on the decrease, as it did not pay very well; cotton had once been the rule, but that also had not been found to pay, on account of the heavy spring rains and strong autumn winds. As usual throughout Chêkiang, the tallow tree (the berries of which had been gathered at this time) was the commonest tree, whilst, for ornamental trees, fine specimens of the banyan relieved the monotony of the flatness here and there.

We passed in our sampans round the walls to the east side of P'ing-yang, and crossed another gap in the hills to Pu-nan 埠南, a busy-looking suburb, a mile distant from the city. Here we witnessed the uncommon spectacle of a pagoda undergoing repairs. A blind canal communicates with Ku-ngao-t'ou 古鰲頭 to the south-east, and Ts'ien-ts'ang 前倉 to the south-west, both 30 *li* from P'ing-yang. The former place is the centre of the Ningpo alum trade, and is the port of P'ing-yang. The sea-going junks load at Ch'ih-ch'i on the other side of the arm of the sea, cross over to Ku-ngao-t'ou, where the Ningpo merchants have their guild and establishments, and thence clear for Ningpo. The alum export by this route reaches 200,000 piculs, or quite 12,000 tons a year.

We took the Ts'ien-ts'ang route, passing at the village of Jui-yang 瑞陽 (20 *li*) under the very prominent and savage-looking peak known as Kin-chi Shan 金雞山, a little to the north-west of which is the almost equally prominent peak of T'ang-ts'un Shan 塘村山, and again to the west the considerable Ts'ien-ts'ang Hills. These three may be considered as the southern limit of the lofty Yen-tang range 雁蕩山, which runs from T'aichow 台州 south to the sea. Indeed, the P'ing-yang teas are known as South Yen-tang, just as the Yo-ch'ing 樂清 teas are known as North Yen-tang.

The boatmen on these canals have an ingenious way of passing the tow-rope under the numerous bridges. A ball of twisted bamboo is attached to the end of each tow-line. This is flung in a direction contrary to that in which the boat is moving, and, by a jerk, made to come up on the other side,—thus saving delay.

Considering the importance of the alum trade, it is astounding how little of the country is known at Wênchow, or even at P'ing-yang. The maps and charts at

hand also appear hopelessly at sea as to the exact configuration of the country. At Ts'ien-ts'ang I succeeded, by dint of cross-questioning boatmen and porters, in eliciting the following information, which, coupled with the fact of my having visited most of the places named, shews that, far from being (as is supposed at Wênchow), a hazardous and difficult journey, it is actually almost as short and easy to go to Foochow by way of the alum mountain as not. We travelled comfortably 60 *li* from Ts'ien-ts'ang, with the tidal river which runs past Ts'ien-ts'ang to Ku-ngao-t'ou, south-west to Liu-shih 柳石 in four hours; thence we travelled south-west, through a series of very fine gorges, past Sao-ch'i 掃溪 (10 *li*), over two ridges 1,000 and 1,500 feet high, 30 more *li* to Fan Shan 礐山 or alum mountain, the valley at the foot of which is about 750 feet above the sea. From Fan Shan to Ts'ien-ch'i 前岐 it is 30 *li* by land, and a tidal river takes you from Ts'ien-ch'i to T'ung-shan 桐山 (as Fuh-ting 福鼎 city, the first district in Fukien, is usually called, from the name once given to the whole region). The main road from P'ing-yang to Foochow also passes Ts'ien-ts'ang, and thence the ferry-towns of north and south Siao-tu 蕭渡 (10 *li*), Lin-k'i 凌溪 (30 *li*), K'iao-tou Mên 橋陡門 (30 *li*), Fên-shui Kwan 分水關 30 *li*, to Fuh-ting (30 *li*), 130 *li* in all, nearly all by land, instead of 160 *li* by Fan Shan, of which all but 70 *li* can be done by boat. The forty *li* between Liu-shih and Fan Shan are, however, often called, and are certainly in labour equal to 60 *li*, and the people, though not hostile to strangers, are unsophisticated and very independent. Near Sao-ch'i we witnessed an instance of this. The sound of cannon and gongs attracted our attention to the movements of certain villages: passing through one, we saw an assembly of yokels going through some formal act, with rough policemen-like hats on their heads, outside the temple grounds; then we met a file of twenty more villagers marching with spears and match-locks towards the first group; in the far distance we descried another army of about 50, similarly armed, and advancing rapidly in martial style. One account was that two rival surnames had decided to fight out at an agreed spot some question connected with a theft, and that the custom of the country was to have "trial by combat" in this way, and to report then first to the authorities when the dead bodies had

been counted. Another account was that a handsome empty coffin had been stolen from the ancestral hall of one surname and sold by a man of another surname, and that the thief had been made by his own elders to point out the receiver of the coffin, whose house was going to be pulled down formally by an armed body made up of the two surnames, though he was admittedly ignorant of the source whence the coffin had been derived, and though the thief, on confessing, had been dismissed. Whichever way it was, it shews that the people have a will of their own. Meanwhile, the women and children seemed to be watching with equanimity these warlike operations, and the passers-by talked of the matter as if it were a daily and unimportant occurrence. It was as though the village blacksmith, grocer, tailor, doctor, cobbler, &c., of rival English villages were to assemble in their working clothes, put on "chimney-pot hats" for the sake of formality, and sally forth to fight on the village green or manor common. Probably the fighting in the Chinese case would consist largely of yells and pirouettes executed by the older and wiser heads, until a couple of young simpletons on each side would get sufficiently excited to poke each other with spears; the wounded would then be rushed upon and butchered by the enemy; the armies of both sides would run away; the bodies would be left alone, or conveyed to the nearest temple, and the timid magistrate be asked to come with his "coroner" to hold an inquest. Some one, however, must be killed on each side, just to leave a salutary impression of awe as a warning to future thieves or ill-doers.

Another way to the alum hills is by way of Ku-ngao-t'ou (10 *li* east or south-east lower down the river than Ts'ien-ts'ang), 40 *li* by either land or water to Wu-shih Ling 烏石嶺, and 20 *li* thence to Sao-ch'i. Or Ch'ih-ch'i, which is 30 *li* to the west of Fan Shan, can be made the base of operations, as appears to have been the case with the only foreigner (apparently Mr. Gutzlaff) who has hitherto visited the mines. His description is quoted in the Ningpo Customs Report for 1868. As far as I could learn, Ch'ih-ch'i is about 60 *li*, or "one tide" (that is the time taken to run up or down with the tide) from Ku-ngao-t'ou by sea, or by another blind canal or river. The alum export used to be by way of Liu-shih, but the land journey to Ch'ih-ch'i was found easier. At a point called K'ae (which probably is

in official Chinese Yen-lung K'êng 嚴龍坑), halfway between Liu-shih and Fan Shan, a road runs (30 or 40 *li*) south to Ch'ih-ch'i.

There are three places marked on the map published with the Ningpo Customs Trade Reports for 1881-2: namely, Ch'ien-k'u 前庫, P'u-mên 浦門, and Chin-hsiang 金鄉. I was told at Ts'ien-ts'ang that it was 30 *li* from Ku-ngao-t'ou (also known as Wu-shih T'ou 烏石頭 or Ho-ts'ao T'ou 河槽頭, locally U-zö diu), and that Chin-hsiang was 25 or 30 *li* south-east from Ku-ngao-t'ou, and also 30 *li* from Ts'ien-ts'ang. P'u-mên was said to be 40 *li* from Ch'ih-ch'i and 70 from Chin-hsiang, and Sha-ch'êng 沙城 40 *li* south of P'u-mên. Ku-ngao-t'ou is also 30 *li* from the two Siao-chia Tu (north and south), and Sha-ch'êng 70 *li* from Fan Shan.

At Liu-shih there is a prominent hill called Wan-ching Shan 萬景山, and this with one or two other peaks near are visible from the 1,000 and 1,500 feet elevations above alluded to, and lie exactly north-north-east of Fan Shan, which is therefore south-south-west of P'ing-yang, Jui-an, and Wênchow.

A mile nearer Fan Shan than Ngie-lung K'ae, a road branches off to Ts'ien-k'i, (40 *li*).

I hope this dry enumeration of names and distances will be of use to any European who may in future make what is undoubtedly an interesting visit.

Between Liu-shih and Fan Shan we passed through many tea plantations, most of them on flat land, which, if there were water enough, would be given up to rice. Except the prominent and rocky peaks alluded to, and the hills enclosing the gorges, most of the hills south of P'ing-yang are terraced for cultivation to a greater extent than is usual in Chêkiang, and look very like parts of Eastern Sz-ch'uan.

The alum is taken in stone blocks (first split with fire, not with powder, and then broken with a sledge hammer) out of the bowels of a mountain perhaps 10 miles round at the base, the top of which may be 1,000 feet above the valley. This mountain is honeycombed and turned up in every direction. It seems to consist of earth, grit, and yellow sand-stone, interstrewn with huge boulders of alum-stone, like plums in a pudding. The stone is carried to covered kilns, and there stowed for two days and two nights law lin-

like stacks at each side of a mild furnace of brushwood. A long pole like a battering ram is held by three men: lumps of stone are placed on the end of the pole lying inside the furnace door, and are swung up in layers or walls on each side by a sudden thrust and turn. After being thus heated and softened, the stones are placed in a sunken vat or hole, and slaked for a few minutes; they are then placed in a shallow pit, and broken into small pieces. The next step is to place them in other sunken vats, and soak them with water for three days and three nights. Then this smoking lime-like mess is placed in a huge mud boiler (at the back of the kiln) with a tiny iron pan or base at its bottom or apex, and boiled by the same furnace which softens the stones. Another flue-like fire runs round the mud boiler, half way up. This thick soupy decoction is then placed in other sunken stone pits, and allowed to cool. The pure alum crystallizes about six inches thick in beautiful stalactital form, and adheres to the sides; it is then sawn off in blocks of 50 or 100 pounds weight, and carried straight away down to Ch'ih-ch'í by an army of porters. The cooled water which collects in the centre is used again for slaking. The grit, which sinks, is thrown outside. The alum thus purified (the factor told me) fetched about a dollar a picul at Ch'ih-ch'í. He said he boiled from 20 to 40 piculs a day, but never reached quite 10,000 a year; he also said there were 24 boiling establishments now working, all of the same size; this supports the independent total estimate of 200,000 piculs a year given to me by another man. Each establishment employs about 100 hands in all, and there are about 5,000 porters, of whom half are Zik'a 佘客 women. Thus about 10,000 people at least are locally supported by the alum trade.

Water for tea-making and drinking has to be brought from a distance, so impregnated with alum is the local fluid.

I met three Zik'a women. The Hunan braves at once called them Yao 猺, probably from some resemblance to Hunan tribes. They looked to me something like the Miao-tsz women I once saw in Kweichow, but were rather more Chinese, possibly on account of their dress. This was very like that of Chinese women, except that the ornaments were somewhat barbaric. The hair was collected and twisted into a point at the top of the head, and the feet were natural.

As the three fresh and rosy ladies I met were as curious to inspect me as I was to examine them, we had a good stare at each other. The men of the Zik'a race as a rule live at their ease at home, and even lie abed (it is I think said) when their wives have children; but here they join in the alum portage business. They wear the queue, and dress as usual with Chinese. I am not quite sure that I saw any, though some faces decidedly looked barbarian, *i.e.* not *rusés*.

From what I was told of their language, I think these people at least must be the same race as the Sia-po 斜婆 of Foochow, of whom, however, I have not hitherto met specimens. The Chinese in Chêkiang call them Kou-t'ou-fan 狗頭番 or "dog-head barbarians," from some peculiarity in their head-dress, or from the ridiculous notion that they are the offspring of dogs and human beings.

The road from Fan Shan to Fuh-ting city (which as I have said is usually called by its military divisional appellation of Tung-shan), goes off to the west, and from it shortly branches off to the south a road to P'u-mên, the distance of which was variously stated at 40 and 60 *li*. A curious livid-green-coloured rivulet runs down to Fan Shan in a picturesque gully to the left, and two descents and one ascent of 250 feet amongst the mountains bring the road to the Fukien frontier (Fuh-ting district), 25 *li* from Fan Shan. Five *li* further on is the busy market town of Ts'ien-k'î, apparently at the head of one inlet in what is called "Gordon Bay" in the Admiralty Charts. We just caught the last of ebb at this point, sailed down in a south-westerly direction past two islands, forming ("Tau-mun 頭門") a sort of triple gate southwards from the sea; then west to another arm of the sea said to lead to the Fukien port of Sha-ch'êng (120 *li*), and then north-west to a point one mile distant from the tiny walled city of Fuh-ting, where a small river runs into the arm of the sea. I enquired after Pei-kwan Hill, which is said on the charts to be prominent, and, from the indications given, conclude that it is, as printed, somewhere on the left bank of the sea arm which runs down to Sha-ch'êng. P'u-mên was said to be 30 *li* to the east of Sha-ch'êng, and 95 *li* from Ts'ien-k'î. The members of our party spoke half a dozen leading dialects between us, but we found communication with the

rustic natives utterly hopeless, though I could clearly detect in the few words identified a regular passage from the Wênchow to the Foochow dialect; for instance the *fa* of the former became at last distinctly *hwang* in the latter, as the epithet *fan* 番 applied to me, and the *dji* of Ts'ien-k'i became clearly *k'ia* 岐. Opposite this island gate, a third arm of the sea runs north to Ta-ho (in Fukien). The distance round the bay from Ts'ien-k'i to the point above mentioned is 35 *li*, but a land journey of 30 *li* is alternative.

The authorities at Fuh-ting were extremely civil to me. The colonel in command, the captain, and the magistrate all called in person, and the last-named posted a proclamation outside my inn, worded in very gratifying terms. As I was on this occasion travelling without uniform, in fact walking, I excused myself from the disrespectful act of receiving them thus attired, but we interchanged small presents and many compliments. The people were of course curious, but (herein differing from the people in P'ing-yang and Jui-an) wore no sullen air of suspicion; in fact I had been astonished at my hearty though boisterous reception by the alum miners, whose children even were not afraid to stand by and have their cheeks pinched, whilst along the road, almost up to the Fuh-ting frontier, the expression on the majority of faces was one of patronising good nature. The fishing and coast populations were not, however, very nice to look at, I thought.

At Ts'ien-k'i I noticed large quantities of oysters ready shelled and sold in a liquid mass; shrimps, cockles, and innumerable other things of a fishy nature and smell; also quantities of very pungent smelling sea grass, used for dyeing; and loads of gypsum, which is found amid the "rotten rocks" (as my informant put it) in the neighbouring hills, and simply washed with water before being sold; it is extensively used in the bean curd manufacture as a rennet.

Previous to the reign of K'ien-lung, (say that of our King George the Third) the modern Fuh-ting Hien was, I at last found, called T'ung-shan "Chên," or so to speak "unchartered borough." It produces for export tea and tobacco, and of course fish. Over two thousand tons of alum are said to come annually through the town or district into Fukien, but I saw nothing of it. The climate became perceptibly milder, and the hills softer in every sense, lower,

and more cultivated from the moment we crossed the Chêkiang and Fukien frontier. Only Tls. 3,000 of land tax (and this is a fair gauge of a district's importance) are collected. Patna, or "great earth," is the only foreign opium smoked, and its local price is 22 clean or 26 average value chopped dollars a ball. Chopped dollars are the currency of Fukien as clean are that of Chêkiang, and clean are as exceptional in the former as chopped in the latter. "Juice," as native Opium is simply called, runs considerably under four ounces for the local dollar.

We left the city in a southerly direction, and if that course is continued 10 *li* a boat can be taken 30 *li* round by the inlets from Chiang-ka 蔣家 to Lin-ka-tu 林家渡, 10 *li* from Pai-lin 白琳.

We went by land the whole 50 *li* to Pai-lin, and as our general direction was south-west, by way of Ngan-ch'üan 岩泉 (10 *li*), no doubt both these first named places are at the heads of the great inlet, or of the two inlets, the mouth or mouths of which are given in the chart.

There is a large fishing village named Tien-t'ou 店頭 30 *li* from Fuh-ting, and here a tea-tax is collected on the leaf coming south. We crossed two unnavigable streams before arriving at this place. As we approached Pai-lin, which on account of the poverty of (even from a Chinese point of view) decent inns must perforce be made a terminus, we passed through some very extensive red-soiled tea hills, looking very much like the coffee hills of Ceylon, and drained by a network of deep diagonal channels; some tea also occupied furrows in the fields, between narrow stretches of cereals or vegetables. The chief of these for the day were rape, saffron-flower, wheat, beans, mustard, and peanuts.

At Tien-t'ou I was met by a simple and wild looking official emissary from Ha-p'u 霞浦 Hien, (Fu-ning Fu). He created a great deal of hilarity amongst my followers in making them understand (with difficulty) that the *kaing* (*hien*) had sent him; as *ye* is the Wênchow form of this word, and *hsüan* that of Hunan, the transition to *kaing* was altogether too bold for them all, nor did the addition of the prefix *ti* (*chih*) 知 facilitate matters. He produced his papers, which shewed that the border authorities were taking most considerate steps to secure my safety. At Tien-t'ou also I was interested to see a Zik'a woman with her head

dress, which indeed looks very like a dog's snout made of felt, a red tassel behind representing the ear.

The journey of seventy or eighty *li* from Pai-lin (the celebrated Paklum) to Yang-chia-ch'i 楊家溪 once more lies through a magnificent mountain country, the road passing over two ridges 1,500 feet above the sea, and whilst incessantly twining, and ascending or descending a few hundred feet, keeping on the average at an altitude of 1,000 feet. Some of the mountains in the neighbourhood must have been close upon 4,000 feet in height, but the cultivation of tea and poppy in slopes and terraces was carried wherever practicable to the very tops. Notwithstanding this, the country has an unkempt look, and is not neatly tilled, whilst the villages are as filthy as any I have seen in China. On the whole the inns, however, though sorry quarters, compare favourably with those of that much overrated province Sz-ch'uan; neither in Chêkiang nor Fukien are pigstyes placed in such close proximity to the best rooms as is usually the case in Kweichow and Sz-ch'uan. The places passed are Wu-p'u-ling 伍鋪嶺, San-shih-liu Ngao 廿六坵 (or Wan) (or 灣), Tsiang-yang 蔣洋, Tu-chia 杜家, and Lung-t'ing 龍亭, and the first part of the road is considered dangerous, on account of the predatory habits of the people,—who look dirty, hungry, and sullen. The proclamations show that the authorities are obliged to compromise with them a little in matters of local interest. At Tsiang-yang I saw a very interesting proclamation, too, upon the subject of opium, stating that it was all Patna, all came from Foochow, paid there in a single lump sum Tls. 2,496 a ball, (Tls. 100 a chest), should not be further taxed; that rogues were in the habit of selling *en route*, and then conveying inferior and illicit opium under cover of their warrants; and that in future only 12 days would be allowed within which the warrants or passports issued at Foochow must be surrendered at Fuh-ting.

A tea-tax is collected at Pai-lin, which becomes a very busy place indeed during the influx of tea-purchasers in the spring.

Opium, though not much, is grown in both Fuh-ting and Ha-p'u, but the authorities discourage its cultivation. At Tsiang-yang there was also a long telegraph proclamation, from which it appears that the K'üchow 衢州 route was

selected in preference to the T'aichów 台州 and Wênchow route on account of the unsettled state of out-of-the-way coast districts of T'aichow.

The road to Foochow descends from the hills, and crosses at Yang-chia-ch'i 楊家溪 a rivulet navigable for rafts; and I think from its appearance that probably a very strong current runs during the rainy season. The Ha-p'u district is entered about half a mile before arriving at Lung-ting. All the hills are either cultivated or covered with brushwood, but we did not see many trees, except bamboo, fir, and pine, until we reached Yang-chia-ch'i, 300 feet above the sea.

Our next day's journey from Yang-chia to Funing 福寧 Fu consisted of, first, a 20 *li* mount of 1,600 feet to Hu-p'ing 湖坪 (1,900 feet); then a winding about for 20 *li* among paddy fields and tea and coir plantations to Tsaoi k'êng 灶坑; and lastly a gradual descent to the Funing plain, which is only a few feet above the sea level. At a village called Shui-mên-k'êng 水門坑, a mile to the north of Tsaoi-k'êng, we passed within a mile of sea water, and got a beautiful glimpse through a fine gorge and gully (from which the place evidently takes its name) at what appeared to be a lagoon or enclosed sea, possibly the "Li-shan" channel of the charts. The ascent and descent were as fine from a scenic point of view as anything we saw the day before, but the plateau was somewhat tame. Several enormous banyan trees attracted my attention. One must have measured 50 feet in circuit, and cast a shade of at least an acre. Foochow is poetically called the "Banyan City," probably on account of the marked magnificence of these trees in the province.

I noticed a proclamation by the judge jupon the subject of coolies fraudulently changing tea-boxes *en route* and adulterating tea intended for export abroad. I also observed notices in each village fixing the weight of official salt at 240 catties; the price at Yang-chia-ch'i was 5 cash a Chinese pound, and it was stated to come from Ch'üan-chow (Chinchew) 泉州 and Hinghwa 興化.

At Yang-chia-ch'i, Wênchow opium is smoked (which is singular, seeing that chiefly Patna is smoked at Fuh-ting), and fetches a dollar for three ounces. I saw a field or two of poppy coming up very well in both Fuh-ting and Fu-ning. Funing Fu is a very small city, and is not seen in

approaching it from the north until you are upon it, as the foot of a hill juts out and conceals all its suburb (called locally Ni-ki-a 二橋下) but one or two houses which look like a small village. There are here opium and salt *lekin* collectorates. A mile to the south-east is T'a-t'au-nwi 塔頭尾, the port of Funing, with a pagoda. Shortly before reaching Funing, the road from the north appears to be leading to T'a-t'au-nwi, the two hills commanding the sea-exit from which stand out very prominently. Large junks and steam gunboats cannot, it is said, get nearer than within 10 *li* of the port, but I noticed junk masts at the port itself.

Funing Fu is a long narrow town, in some places not more than 200 yards across from wall to wall. At one time the sea came up to the walls, but now the intervening plain is securely laid out for paddy. At one time, and, it appears in a measure, even until recently the city was a port of some importance, but Wênchow seems to have done a humble stone in killing its sea-trade. Notwithstanding this, the city looks fairly prosperous and busy, and the *yamêns* are unusually imposing as viewed from the outside. Funing is the seat of an admiral, who has under him 1,000 "braves," besides about 3,700 men, in seven divisions or *ying*, of regular troops or "yeomanry" (as I think they should be called).

The best evidence of the fact that the maritime trade of Funing is on the decline is the circumstance that Fukien (Hinghwa) salt is brought overland from Yen-t'ien 鹽田, 40 *li* nearer to Foochow, and costs 12 cash a catty, or double the price of the same salt at Fuh-ting. Opium is grown in most of the five districts under Funing, but accounts vary as to how far the poppy cultivation is discouraged; the local drug is said to be superior to that of Wênchow, but the presence of the latter proves that, as there is a demand for both that and Patna, any local supply must fall short of local needs.

The road from Funing to Foochow leads for a few miles up a narrow valley to the west, and then across a ridge 800 feet higher than the plain. The most interesting feature in this part are the Sia-po 娑 (the Wênchow Zik'abu) woman. Hundreds of these were met carrying loads of produce on poles. They are an extremely hardy-looking race, and all the

married women wear a most peculiar head-dress, consisting first of all of a felt cap, cocked forward like a malt-factory stack, covering the twisted knot of hair at the back part of the crown. Over this is worn a lofty tiara or helmet, ornamented with small plates of silver in front; it is square as far as half-way up, and triangular at the top; a sort of fringe of red thread hangs on each side of this helmet, which seems to be supported behind only by the felt cone it half covers. The earrings are usually coarsely fashioned in silver, and broad gold or copper rings are worn on the fingers. The clothes in shape are not unlike those worn by the Tan-ka 蛋家 women of Canton, except that they are invariably made of an evidently homespun sleazy material, looking like an extremely fine coat of mail. The few Sia-k'a 斜客, or male Sias, I met were at first to me undistinguishable from the Hans or Chinese, the majority of whom wear a turban about here. However, it was pointed out to me that most of them had their back hair cut moderately short, and twisted into a half knot instead of a queue; it seemed to me also that their hair was rather very dark brown than black. All accounts agreed that they ate, married, buried, and lived generally like the Chinese, and were not at all averse to intermarrying with them, but that they did not marry persons of the same surname amongst themselves. There were only four surnames in Funing,—Pwang 盤, Lang 藍, Loui 雷, and Chüng 鍾, but no Pwangs in Lo-yüan 羅源 district. I have pointed out elsewhere that the Hak-kas 客家 near Canton often call the Puntis Sha-p'o and Sha-lao 蛇婆佬, and that the Miao-tsz I met in Kweichow call the Chinese Shwa. Now, though different characters are locally used, there is one character 蛇, "a snake," which hits off from every etymological point of view the Hak-ka *Sha*, the Wenchow *Zi*, and the Foochow *Sia*; and it would therefore seem possible that the old race anciently occupying the hills of Yüeh 越 were once called by some such name. From the few examples given to me of their language, it is evident that they are essentially of Chinese stock, and that they speak a sort of mandarin dialect flavoured with that of Foochow, just as the Hak-kas speak a corrupted mandarin dialect flavoured with that of Canton. Owing to the suspicions which would have arisen had I endeavoured to

personally cross-question a woman, I was obliged to content myself with second-hand evidence.

We now descended a few hundred feet, and kept on an average high level, passing no place of any size, but winding through charming glen scenery, after which we descended once more into a small plain, crossed to the west a low ridge, and found ourselves at the port of Yen-t'ien, up to the very houses of which good-sized junks can moor. Since, some years ago, the mountain road from Funing by way of Ning-tê 寧德 district city (160 *li*) to Lo-yüan district city (65 *li*) was infested by bandits, the sea route of 180 *li* from Yen-t'ien to Fei-lwan-tu 飛鸞渡, and 40 *li* thence to Lo-yüan, has become a permanent institution; yet the literary chancellor on his rounds still takes the regulation land-route. I enjoyed immensely my five hours' voyage in a regular sea-going junk, though, owing to our having nothing on board but a few tons of stone ballast, I must say I felt relieved whenever a reef was taken in. We had such a magnificent breeze that we made what is called a day and a night's voyage between the hours of 4 and 9 p.m., and I was thus able to watch the configuration of the land. First we went south-west for about ten miles, past a lorch gunboat lying at anchor, down a beautiful bay a mile to two miles broad, lined on both sides by hills prettily wooded and cultivated, passing small islets to the north and west. Then, for about twenty miles, we sailed down a broader bay due south, past a solitary rock and a considerable inlet running in or out due east. The weather was not now so clear, so that the hills on each side were not distinctly visible in detail, but the breadth of the bay appeared to be from 5 to 10 miles across. An island about two miles long formed a sort of gate to this bay, one narrow strait giving access to the south-east, and another which we took, much broader, to the south. Having got clear of a headland and a small island to our right, we turned south-west for about 10 miles having land at a distance of two or three miles on each side. Then we turned west, and land was only visible in the darkness to the left. Next morning when looking back from the heights ashore, I found we had come from the north-east in rounding our last promontory, and that, between this promontory and our land, there was still another inlet to the north, apparently

full of shallows at low water. I think this must lead to Ning-tê city. We were high and dry on the bank of a small tidal creek when I woke, lying off the market town and military picket station of Fei-lwan, belonging to Ning-tê district. The "official" price of a fifty-ton junk, worked by five men, for 60 miles was 600 cash, or, say, half-a-crown, but I added a dollar. These junks are admirably clean inside, and are fitted with very strong bulk-heads and water-tight compartments.

Very shortly after leaving Fei-lwan, we soon again began an ascent of the beautiful mountain pass bearing that name. We had a most superb view of the valley below, and of the sea route by which we had come, from a height of 1,750 feet. All along this pass there were, amongst other trees, some very fine specimens of the *Pinus Bungeana* (the same tree as the "Big Trees" or *Wellingtonia gigantea* of California), some of them twelve feet in circumference. It is a curious thing that the vulgar name for *ying*, "banyan," is pronounced *süing* in Fukien, and the *süing* or fir tree is distinguished from it only by the addition of the word *pa* (vulgar for *pai*) "a cedar." There were still 150 feet to mount before we reached the highest point of 1,900 feet, shortly after which we commenced a descent into the lovely plain (as seen from above) of Lo-yüan, even steeper than our ascent on the other side. We found the Sia-po of this district somewhat different from those of Funing. The clothes were much alike, except that the women wore neat coils of cloth from the knee (and possibly higher) down to the ankle; these coils were often adorned at the lower end with a turn of gay ribbon or braid. Many of the women were bare-legged, but I was informed that they wore short trousers beneath their skirts; but anyhow the knee is often bare. The unmarried girls here and elsewhere wear no head-gear over their twists or plaits, which appear to vary in style according to the taste of the subject. But the head dress was something really outrageous. The hair was gathered into a sort of long roll, projecting beyond the forehead and lying in a filigree silver boat, like a nutmeg grater. A stick or pin formed a sort of horn forward of this, to which was attached a small red flag or tassel. Above the boat was what looked like a red heel-less shoe reversed. Another arrangement of sticks extended nearly a foot behind,

and supported a hollow silver horizontal half-moon or crescent, also of filigree, tapering at each end, and as thick as a man's thumb in the middle; and behind this, again, hung a red flag or curtain of cloth about four inches square. Possibly the bow is the origin of the crescent, and the quiver of the slipper. The women were very nimble in their movements as soon as they saw me, and gave me very little opportunity of examining them closely. At one spot we came across a Sia-po and Sia-k'a going through what looked like the gambols of Venus and Adonis on the high-road. She was doubled up in his lap, with her pointed head lying affectionately pillowed on his breast, and he was sitting down, clasping her with one hand and patting her hard little back with the other. She had just fallen and hurt herself badly, he said, and he was her husband. It was rather a touching sight, and though even a Chinaman could not have avoided assisting his wife in public had she met with a similar accident, there would hardly have been the same straightforward simplicity of attitude.

The Sia-k'a or male Sias twist their cloth above the ankle, like the women, round the shins, whilst the Chinese porters wear a much shorter cloth bound just round the ankle, as in Hukwang and Sz-ch'uan. The material out of which the men's clothes are made is often of the same sleazy stuff as that worn by nearly all the women. The coats are usually shorter than those worn by the male Chinese, and a very short pair of trowsers, scarcely bigger than bathing-drawers, is worn over the ordinary loose knee-breeches. Most of the men wear a sort of fillet or ring of cloth embracing the head and the coiled queue.

A mile east of Lo-yüan city there is a small river which runs in to the sea at Wu-li-k'ou 五里口, 15 *li* away. Lo-yüan is supplied with Hinghwa salt brought in junks hither. The monopolists join interests with the *likin* offices, and charge 12 cash a catty in the city, though it is delivered at the port for 6 cash. Patna opium seems to be that most smoked, and its price runs very high, from Tls. 18 to Tls. 20 a ball, and less than an ounce for a dollar if bought retail. The Fukien authorities have evidently a closer grasp on taxable commodities than the people will submit to elsewhere. At Lo-yüan there is a very neat Roman Catholic Chapel just outside the north gate, and I found

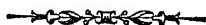
later on that a still more extensive Protestant establishment was building next door to it inside the walls. There are about 1,000 Protestant converts in the neighbourhood, of all ages and both sexes, and as yet only 30 at Funing Fu. Not much native opium is grown in Lo-yüan, at least for sale, and Wênchow opium fetches a dollar for three ounces. Fu-ch'ing 福清 district is (it was stated) the one in Foochow Fu which grows the most. It was explained to me that the people are not yet expert at cultivating the drug, and that the services of P'ing-yang (Wênchow) men are usually requisitioned. Lo-yüan is, like Funing, a long narrow city at and round the toe of a hill. On the south and west, very fine mountains 2,000 and 3,000 feet high shut in the city; the east is open, and the north covered by the low hills over which we passed. The colonel in command has under him 300 troops.

At and from Funing the dialect, which had hitherto been mixed and unsatisfactory, developed into almost the pure Foochow tongue; but here the lisp is so strong that such words as *sing*, *sik*, are pronounced by many precisely like the English words *thing*, *thick*. Those peculiarities which I have explained elsewhere, under which the vowels, finals, and tones of all words radically change in combination according to fixed though locally unknown rules, exist in full force here. For instance, *paök* in the entering tone is "north," but *pöpieng* (if uttered quickly) in the even tone is "the North." This, as I have endeavoured to show, is nothing more nor less than the Sandhi, Vriddhi, and Guna of Sanskrit, as explained by Professor Max Müller. The Foochow dialect, though full of localisms, archaisms, and vulgarisms, is one of the sweetest to the ear,—even more so perhaps than the Pekingese; the tones and the lisps seem to impart to the speakers a somewhat languid or effeminate air, which, however, is not in accordance with their character.

On the whole the mountain scenery of this much of Fukien (except near the border) must be given a place distinctly ahead of that in any part of Chékiang. It is more varied, more *accidenté* (as the French say), or strongly marked; not so much heaped together; it is bigger, and rougher. Perhaps a circuit of 20 miles radius round Lo-yüan city would comprise the finest portions. I am

told that the road to Ning-tê crosses mountains 3,500 feet in height. The road from Lo-yüan, past the Lien-kiang 連江 boundary (30 *li*) and Tan-yang 丹洋 (20 *li*) in the Lien-kiang district, to T'ai-shih 台市 (30 *li*), 80 *li* in all, keeps at an average height of 500 feet or so above the plains; never more than 800. But this stretch very strongly resembles the inland parts in the immediate neighbourhood of Ch'ungk'ing. There are few even small plains, and very little level ground. On all sides are to be seen fine mountains a dozen miles or so away, but the intervening space is an irregular congeries of mounds, terraced and given up to paddy, amongst which the road winds, ascends, and descends at every instant. The peculiarity of Chêkiang scenery, a small valley surrounded by hills, ceases almost as soon as the frontier is crossed, until Foochow is thus nearly approached. At Tan-yang there is a large tea-tax office in charge of a deputy; apparently each district fattens on exported tea, of which even at this time numerous loads were being carried to Foochow. The crops in the ground, which was as a rule not yet cleared of its paddy roots, were rising wheat and vegetables. The tallow tree, here called *k'öüing* or *k'üing-ch'eu*, which had almost disappeared since we left Chêkiang, began to grow common once more; also coir, maple, firs, pines, many kinds of bamboo, and a great many trees of which even the Chinese names were doubtful, such as *p'ieu*, *koä*, &c.

Leaving T'ai-shih the road runs for 10 *li* along a valley of the Chêkiang type surrounded on all sides by hills. At P'an-tu 潘渡 a river is crossed, which runs down over 300 *li* from parts of the Ping-nan 屏南 and Ku-t'ien 古田 districts to Lien-kiang city (30 *li*), and is navigable for mastless boats for a hundred *li* up. We followed the right bank of this river for a few miles west, and then left it to continue south-west and ascend the Hia-hu-ling. This pass runs at an average height of 1,500 feet for several miles to Pê-ling 北嶺, whence from an elevation of 1,750 feet, a superb view of Foochow, Ku-shan, Pagoda Anchorage, Disraeli Rock, &c., &c., is obtained.



ARTICLE IV.

A JOURNEY FROM FOOCHOW TO WÊNCHOW, THROUGH CENTRAL FUKIEN.

BY

E. H. PARKER, Esq.

I LEFT the Foochow bridge on the 29th of January 1888, and, passing through the well known and beautiful scenery of the Min, with its olive, *lungan*, and pear orchards, reached in one hour the picturesque old bridge called Hung-shan Ch'iao 洪山橋, which, like the celebrated Foochow bridge, is occasionally partially carried away by the floods. At Hwai-an 懷安, ten miles from Foochow, a navigable branch river connects the Min with Ch'ang-loh 長樂 district. The next place of any size passed is Chu-ch'i 竹崎 (40 *li*), and we anchored at Ta-muh-k'í 大目溪, 40 *li* further up, having made 110 *li* in all during the half-day of six hours. The scenery was very pretty all the way. From Ta-muh-k'í the river winds in a general north-westerly direction past An-jên-k'í 安仁溪 (70 *li*) to Shui-k'ou 水口 (40 *li*). This place is in the Ku-t'ien 古田 district, but the left bank a mile below is still in the Hou-kwan 侯官 (Foochow) district, and the opposite or right bank belongs to the district of Min-ch'ing 閩清. Some short time ago passenger steam-launches were allowed to run daily as far as Shui-k'ou, up to which place there seems to be plenty of water at all times, and very little obstruction from sand-banks; but above this progress is not so easy. The banks are exceedingly pretty, even in winter, though the hills are seldom more than 200 or 300 feet high. A stream, navigable for small boats, runs down from near the Min-ch'ing district city to the river Min, which it joins at Min-ch'ing-k'ou 閩清口, 30 *li* below An-jên-k'í, (where there is also a rivulet), and 70 *li* below Shui-k'ou. There does not seem to be very much trade on the river, except in tea and firewood coming down from the country, and in salt going upwards; in fact (apart from tea) the effect of foreign

influence, whether in trade or otherwise, is confined to a comparatively small area around Foochow, which appears to have been an unimportant provincial capital until fillipled into activity by the advent of foreigners.

The road to Hwang-t'ien 黃田 (50 *li*), the first of the four short stages to Yenp'ing Fu 延平府, crosses at Ch'ao-tien-k'iao 朝天橋 (10 *li*) the unnavigable rivulet which runs down from Ku-t'ien city. A ridge called Siu-ling 秀嶺, 700 feet above the river level, is then crossed, and at Ngo-yang 弼洋, 30 *li* from Shui-k'ou, the road again descends to the main river side. Here I met Messrs. Baun and Gandil, Danish gentlemen superintending the erection by Honan braves of the poles and wires belonging to the new telegraph line, which had advanced thus far from Foochow and was proceeding at the rate of about a mile a day. Another constructing party was gradually meeting them from the north. They had had a little trouble with the people at one place a few miles lower down, but on the other hand there were here no explanatory proclamations posted up on the poles as was the case in Chêkiang. The line is double, and seems to follow the left river-bank where this is fairly straight; otherwise cutting across the hills. From Ngo-yang it is 20 *li* past Ku-k'ou 谷口 (10 *li*) to Hwang-t'ien. The river is very rocky all the way from Shui-k'ou, and in winter its channel is usually confined to a very small portion of the catchment area, which looks as if during the spring rains the navigation of it must be very intricate, full of rapids, and dangerous. Gunboats are then stationed at intervals along the banks in order to protect the tea-purchasers and tea-cargoes from robbers. The porters with me quoted Patna opium at \$19, \$24, and \$25 the ball at Foochow, Yenp'ing Fu and Kienning 建寧 Fu respectively. At Shui-k'ou they paid 1,100 to 1,200 cash the ounce for the prepared drug, and 600 for native "juice." Fu-an 福安 district, they said, produced by far the most opium in the province (which statement corroborates what the missionaries had told me), and the price there was 300 cash. *Likin* was charged, and confiscation the penalty for evasion. Some opium was also grown in Min-ch'ing and Ku-t'ien, but not much in the last-named district. Salt all comes from Fu-ch'ing 福清 district (Foochow Fu), and costs 16, 18, 24, 28, and 32 cash respectively at Foochow,

Min-ch'ing, Shui-k'ou, Yenp'ing and Kienning. The hill country between Shui-k'ou and Hwang-t'ien did not strike me as being much or carefully cultivated, and had in many places barely been cleared of brushwood; tea, however, is produced in Ku-t'ien district, and the porters said paid taxes amounting to \$9 for fine and \$4 for coarse the load, irrespective of distance. This hardly corresponds with the Tls. 2.2 and Tls. 1.6 of a previous informant, but the exchange tricks of tax-gatherers may account for the difference.

The second stage of 50 *li* between Hwang-t'ien and Ch'ing-fêng 清風 lies through the same class of country,—hills covered with brush, and little in the way of cultivation but paddy in the hollows. The places passed are Yün-ting 雲頂 (13 *li*), San-tu-k'ou 三都口 (7 *li*), Ts'ang-hsia-t'ang 嶺峽塘 (10 *li*), and Wu-pu-k'ou 武步 (10 *li*), which last is 10 *li* from Ch'ing-fêng, where the district of Nan-p'ing 南平 begins. Malwa opium is smoked as well as Patna at Hwang-t'ien, and was quoted at 600 cash the ounce (unprepared); prepared Patna cost 1,100 cash. I do not quite understand why this hill country is so thinly inhabited and little cultivated; possibly the production of fuel is found as profitable as tea, for little coal is used at Foochow, and large cargoes of fire-wood go down the river. The land-tax of Ku-t'ien district is about Tls. 18,000, though nothing of commercial importance is produced. The road between San-tu and Ts'ang-hsia skirts the river, which is now more than ever beset with savage black rocks standing upon very white sand. There are eighteen rapids in this short stretch; but, though one or two are dangerous to unskilful boatmen, they are trifles compared with those of the Yangtze. Here, as on the Kung-t'an 龔灘 River which runs from Kweichow province to Fuchou 涪州, the use of enormous stern sweeps, 80 to 100 feet in length, worked from a high bridge, is found necessary for steering. Near Wu-pu an unnavigable stream runs into the main river. The ten *li* thence to Ch'ing-fêng are called "long," and are indeed equal to twenty. There are no *hang-chia* 行家 or road agents in this province as in Chêkiang, and the engaging of porters by private persons is not conducted on satisfactory principles. Fortunately for me the excellent *wei-yüan* sent from Foochow had authority to demand bearers at official

rates at each stage, and to lodge me in the *hsing-t'ai* 行臺, or "Dâk bungalows," used by the literary chancellor, otherwise I should have found considerable difficulty in getting along without delay, annoyance, and extortion.

The next 50 *li* march to Kin-sha 金沙 was a comfortless plod in heavy rain, but as long as it is possible to induce porters to travel, the weather may well be given secondary consideration, for a whole day's stay in any possible Chinese lodging-house is just as comfortless as a wet journey. Fêng-ch'ing is 1,500 feet above the river, and the places between it and Kin-sha are Lung-yüan 龍源 (10 *li*), Pai-sha 白沙 (10 *li*), Ngo-k'í 岳溪 (5 *li*), Ch'a-yang 茶洋 (10 *li*), and Hu-lu-shan 葫蘆山 (10 *li*), which is 5 *li* from Kin-sha. These stages are always called *p'wo* 鋪 (*Pekingese p'u*), or the German *Stunde*, and the word *t'ang* 塘 is usually suffixed to the official territorial name. In the latter half of the journey we followed the left river-bank. There was nothing new to notice either on land or river, except that the current of the latter looked very rapid, probably the more so by reason of the last night's steady rain. An unpleasant incident occurred to me on the way. As I was walking along amongst the hills, I observed an abandoned-looking dog crouching suspiciously by the road side, and whilst I was speculating upon his sanity, he deliberately walked up and seized me by the leg; fortunately for me I was sufficiently on the alert to save my skin at the expense of my trowsers and of my only weapon, an open umbrella, the sudden transformation of which at one swoop into rags and splinters served to mystify the dog until the coolies drove him off.

There are no Sia-po 邪婆 anywhere along this route, nor are there any of those fine large-footed Han 漢, or Chinese, women who are employed in such large numbers as public scavengers in and about Foochow. These, like the Sia-po, are somewhat extravagant in their head-dress, and their earrings especially, but, though bizarre, the head-dress has nothing essentially non-Chinese about it. It has, and they have, the appearance of having been toned down from Sia-po to Han. The views previously expressed by me as to the "snake" origin of the Sia received a remarkable confirmation at Foochow. I was enquiring of an official (who had of course never heard of the Shwa, Sha, and Zi of the Miao-tsz, Hakkas, and Wenchow people) whether the

scavenger women were in any way related to the "heterodox" women or Sia. He said "No; they are stated "to be Sie 蛇, or snakes (not Sia-po), the ancient race which "dwelt in Wu-chu 無諸 country during the Han times." Now this striking if not quite correct impromptu statement appears to me to confirm the speculative view I expressed regarding the generic application of the word snake, the identity of the Shwa, Sha, Sia, and Zi, and the historical reasons for the deduction.

The fifty li to the ferry opposite Yenp'ing Fu are over comparatively level ground, the places passed being Kih-k'i 吉溪, An-tsi 安濟, Ma-li 麻梨, and Shih-li-an 十里庵. The scenery became more beautiful as we advanced, until it reached a climax at Yenp'ing, grandly situated at the foot of lofty (then slightly snow-clad) mountains, at the junction of the two rivers running down from Kienning and Shaowu 邵武 prefectures. I could not have believed, had I not witnessed with my own eyes, the difference one single night's rain could make in the river. From a clear narrow stream winding its way through a broad, sandy, and rocky bed, it had changed to a broad muddy sluice, filling every inch of space, covering the highest rocks, and absorbing all rapids into one great current running six miles an hour at least. No doubt up-country rains must have had a greater effect than local ones in producing this metamorphosis. At Kih-k'i a mountain stream which could be jumped over at ordinary times had to be crossed in boats amid the branches of a forest of tall trees.

Yenp'ing Fu is a rustic sort of city; unpopulous, and apparently without anything artificial of striking interest or value, either inside the walls or outside amongst the villages. Two pagodas as usual crown the nearest hills. The main street had just been partially rebuilt after a fire, and the river was now up to the walls; the rest of the town appeared to be the usual collection of tumble down shanties and pigstyes. I occupied the best room at an inn which for filth, darkness, and intimacy with pigs reminded me of Szechuan experiences. The neighbourhood seems to produce nothing in particular of commercial value; but a few miles north, on the way to Kienning, dense tea-plantations begin to occupy the mountain sides, the land having now become more suitable therefor. Patna

opium was quoted at Yen'ping at Tls. 24 the ball, or at the rate of nearly £200 sterling the chest. Retail, the prepared drug cost 1,200 cash, or $\frac{4}{5}$ of a tael, the ounce, or at the rate of £370 the chest. Malwa, which on enquiry turns out to be "false Malwa from Wênchow," was quoted at 520 and 800 cash the ounce unprepared and prepared respectively. Salt from Foochow by boat was about 20 cash the catty. Cotton was imported from Foochow, and the women spun no yarn. Silk goods also came from Foochow. So far, Fukien strikes me as being (apart from tea and salt, which are its great wealth and tax-producing commodities) quite as poor a province as Kweichow.

The road from Yen'ping to Kienning crosses the river again at the east end of the town (Shui-tung 水東) and once more at K'iu-tun 坵墩 (10 *li*), taking a north-easterly direction past Shang-king 上京 (10 *li*) and Kau-tung 高桐 (10 *li*) to Ta-hêng 大橫 (10 *li*). The local brogue of Yen'ping was quite incomprehensible to me, but the Foochow dialect seemed to be pretty generally understood. The commonest tree along the road thus far from Foochow is the maple, which is usually called *pieng* 扁 (Pekingese *pien*) in this province. Just at this time the peach and plum blossoms were coming out, and occasionally we saw a fine camphor tree, but the hills generally are covered with bamboos, fir, pine, long grass, and scrub.

The second 40 *li* stage between Ta-hêng and T'ai-p'ing 太平 was again travelled in the wet; the direction was still north-east; the places passed were Wu-li-p'ai 五里牌 (the frontier village of Kien-an district 建安); then across a creek to Fang-ts'un 房村 (10 *li*), with a likin office, Lü-k'ou 莒口 (10 *li*), and Pa-sien 八仙, which is 10 *li* from T'ai-p'ing. All these places are poverty-stricken villages of the third or fourth order, like all others without exception between Foochow and Kienning. Nearly opposite Pa-sien, however, there is a very large village called Ta-ma-k'ou (?) 大麻口, and I had also noticed one equally large opposite An-tsi; indeed I saw several away on the right bank. This road is the highroad to Peking, but with the exception of the official hostelries, which are at the disposal of any one with money or influence, there is no decent accommodation for man,—beasts there are none,—of any kind on the highroad, *i.e.*, the

bridle path. I could not get flour or sugar when I enquired for some, and even pork is only occasionally seen. Opium dens abound everywhere, and as in Chêkiang seem to sap the wealth and life of the lower orders. The idleness, delay, thriftlessness and poverty induced by opium-smoking is much more apparent here than in Szechuan, where it costs 800 and 1,200 cash an ounce is a very different thing from 200 and 300,—not to mention the different physical effects of the foreign and native drug. The absolute want of everything else in the way of pleasure, comfort, amusement, quiet, privacy, and luxury is quite sufficient to account for the charm which this indulgence, coupled with that of gaming, exercises upon the Chinese imagination. Except in such great centres as Canton, Foochow, Hankow, &c., I have never seen in China anything so nearly approaching household comfort as is to be met with in the villages near Peking.

There was still nothing of novelty to remark during the day's journey, except that the deep red-soiled tea-plantations became more numerous, and that the river bed was not so completely covered over by the freshet. Judging from the height of the villages above the river, I think the level must occasionally be 20 feet higher than it is now, but the flood disappears as quickly as it comes, and this fact points to a very rapid fall in the ground level. I made out Yen'ping to be between 400 and 500 feet higher than Foochow (400 *li*), whilst Ch'ungk'ing (4,500 *li*) is only 800 feet above Shanghai. The people along the road are only moderately curious; they seem ignorant; resigned, if not contented; quietly and (for Chinese) kindly disposed; rather spiritless, and lacking in intelligence; but not so greedy for gain and so quarrelsome as is usually the case. The road for the 40 *li* from Tai-p'ing to Kienning Fu runs nearly all the way along the right bank of the river, which is very tortuous just here. The places passed are Sie-k'êng 謝坑 (10 *li*), Pau-ên 報恩 (10 *li*), Liu-k'êng 劉坑 (10 *li*), and Ch'êng-si 城西 (10 *li*), which is just opposite Kienning. The scenery improves, whilst remaining of much the same character as heretofore; the snow on some of the higher mountains near the city sets off the red tea slopes and the dense masses of young fir and scrub. At Pau-ên I noticed a proclamation calling for strong, non-opium-smoking braves for the defence of Foochow,—payment Tls. 4.2 a

month. The usual telegraph proclamations were to be seen,—one by the Tartar-general, viceroy, and governor, a second by the trade board and special board, and a third and fourth by the local civil and military authorities.

Kienning Fu is situated on the point formed by the two rivers running down from Sung-k'i 松溪 (180 *li*) district city, and from P'u-ch'êng 浦城 (about 350 *li*) and Kienyang 建陽 (120 *li*) district cities. The excellent quarters allotted to me were on the right bank of the latter, and were apparently the embryo offices of the new telegraph company, as coils of wire and busy clerks seemed to testify. All the way from where I met the Danes, tarred poles were lying at intervals in readiness for erection, but here they were already up, though the wires were not yet attached. An extra proclamation hurrying the workers on was posted, and inn-keepers were ordered to turn out all other guests in favour of the telegraph cavalcade.

The largest sized tea-boats do not go higher than Kienning, above which another class of barge travels. All boats on this river are of a gingerbread character, and appear to be constructed in a curve, probably in consequence of the frequent bumps they get. There is a saying on the river, *Chai sung t'ie(k) sao (k)jung* 紙船鉄梢公, which at once illustrates the popular view of the boats, the importance of the stern "sweep," and the irregularity of the language. In this dialect not only are all tones and vowels subject to what may be called grammatical inflection, but all initials and finals may, under certain circumstances, be left out.

We crossed the river on starting from Kienning, and again at Pei-tsin 北津 (20 *li*), passing Si-chên-ts'un 西鎮村 (10 *li*). Thence we cut across a bend to Yeh-fang 葉坊 (20 *li*), passing Kiao-k'i 交溪 (10 *li*). These absurdly short stages of 40 and 50 *li* a day shew that the Fukienese are no travellers. The scenery consisted of the usual fir and brushwood clad hills, interspersed with red patches devoted to tea. One of the chair-bearers, a scarred veteran who had fought under General Tso Tsung-t'ang in ten provinces, gave me some valuable general information. He said that the four districts under Funing Fu, namely Fu-an, Siu-ning 修寧, Ning-tê 寧德, and Ha-p'u 霞浦 were the only ones in North Fukien which seriously produced opium, and that Fu-an was a long way the first. In the South,

Changchow 漳 and Ch'üanchow 泉 (Chinchew) prefectures grew the poppy successfully. He said that the soil in the rest of Fukien was too "salt" 鹹, and that opium would never succeed unless human ordure and urine (the chief Chinese fertilisers) were withheld for three years, and the ground sweetened at the same time with lime. Chêkiang native opium was the only home sort imported into Fukien, but Kiangsi and Hukwang took the Szechuan and Shansi drug. The T'ai-p'ing rebels had only ravaged three prefectures in Fukien, the seven district cities under Changchow in the south (but not Amoy), the four under Shao-wu in the west, and five of the seven under Kienning, the two which escaped being Ou-ning 甌甯 and Kien-an, the two prefectural districts. The rebels surrounded the city for 32 days, and blew breaches into the walls several times, but never succeeded in getting in. In Chêkiang the prefectural city of K'üchow 衢 escaped, as well as those of T'aichow 台 and Wênchow 溫.

Kienning is the seat of a brigadier, who has under him a colonel stationed at Yenp'ing Fu, the seat of the Taotai. The city is, and looks from the outside, better built and more populous than Yenp'ing, but seems to have no important trade (apart of course from salt and tea); but considerable business is done in lotus-seeds, bamboo shoots, and mushrooms. The double telegraph line is complete from Kienning northwards, and runs along the right bank as far as Kien-yang. This portion does not seem to have been so carefully laid as the Foochow section.

We accomplished 80 *li* in one day between Yeh-fang and Kien-yang district city; the aspect of the country was the same,—still very little cultivation, and the hills somewhat lower. The river is not as a rule more than 100 yards broad, and it is, as before, very full of rocks. In leaving Kienning we walked over a soft mud road 20 feet above the river, which had been but the day before flowing over it. The places passed between Yeh-fang and Kien-yang, at distances of 10 *li*, are Nan-ling 南嶺, Fêng-loh 豐樂, Chung-hêng 中橫, Hwang-k'ou 黃口, past the boundary to Ch'ang-t'wan 長湍, Wu-tun 吳墩, and Pai-ch'a 白槎. Between Hwang-k'ou and Ch'ang-t'wan there is a large village called Kin-p'an 金盤 with an official resting house. I should have been greatly at a loss for both

lodging and porters had it not been for the *wei-yüan*. Kien-yang was partly destroyed by the rebels, but has now a closely-built appearance from the outside. It is situated on the left bank of the river which runs down from Ma-sha 麻沙 sub-district city (60 *li*), and on the right bank of a river running from Ch'ung-an 崇安 district city (120 *li*). The first river is crossed by a most picturesque roofed bridge, nearly a quarter of a mile long, and well paved with stones: the city is on the spit formed by the two rivers, and a bridge of boats attached to each bank and to each other by two strong iron chains then crosses the Ch'ung-an river. A brook running westwards joins this latter river a few hundred yards further up, and the telegraph poles, with the high road to P'u-ch'eng, follows this brook up for about 20 *li*. Our direction was north-east for 50 *li*, and then east for the remaining 20 *li* of the day's journey. The places passed were Pai-t'a 白塔 (15 *li*), Ts'ih-ku-tien 七姑店 (15 *li*), Ma-yüan 麻源 (30 *li*), An-k'ou 安口 (10 *li*), Jên-shan 仁山 (10 *li*); and between Ma-yüan and An-k'ou, where the Ou-ning district is again entered, a ridge about 500 feet higher than the adjacent plains is crossed. From the other or north-east side of this ridge a rivulet takes its source and runs east: we crossed shortly afterwards at An-k'ou another forming itself more from the north. This last joins the river which runs down from P'u-ch'eng at Ying-t'ou 營頭, our journey's end (70 *li* in all). Opposite Ying-t'ou is a very large village containing 4,000 or 5,000 houses called Shui-ch'í 水溪, and the distance by river from this place to Kienning is only 120 *li*, 70 *li* shorter than the official high road travelled by us. No trouble seems to have been taken northwards from Kienning to avoid interfering with private rights in setting up the telegraph poles, which are again posted with proclamations, and are stuck right in the middle of the paddy-fields between the hills on each side. At Kien-yang the floods had swept down several posts carelessly planted too near the river, and the wires were twisted together and lying across the road. Both here and at Kienning, where there is usually also a bridge of boats at the place we crossed by ferry, the bridges are unsafe when the river is much swollen, and they are then swung back along the banks for safety.

There were of course a great many tea hills to be seen,

but not so many as I expected; a large proportion were abandoned or unsuccessful. It appears that the plant becomes exhausted after 20 years, and that its seventh year is usually its best. The trade has not flourished lately, as the supply has been greatly in excess of the demand. At An-k'ou I saw a notice issued last year by the tea-hongs stating that both foreigners and natives had lost on the new season's teas, and threatening with a fine of Tls. 1,000 any storing-house which should pay duty for any planter or owner after the 8th moon, by which date all bonds must be handed in. The meaning I take to be this. The supercargo does not pay duty *en route*, but gives a bill, which is taken up by the tea guild at Foochow and honoured on arrival and claim of the tea. If the tea be lost on the voyage, of course no one applies to (so to speak) take it out of bond. The finest tea comes from Ch'ung-an (Bohea Hills 武彝山), and the commonest from Shaowu. The country prices for the fine teas range from Tls. 10 to Tls. 35 a picul, and there are "two payments and two examinations, 兩起兩驗," on the way. The accounts differ as to the amounts per picul for which bills are given at each paying station, and as to which those places severally are, but they agree that an average of about Tls. 2 a picul is what in effect is charged for duty and *likin* on tea,—say a penny a pound; the effect of this penny is probably quite as onerous as the sixpence levied in England. The telegraph should be of great value to the planters in future.

North of Yenp'ing periodical markets are held in the villages every three, five, or ten days. The larger ones are called *hui*, and perhaps resemble the Pekingese *hui* 會. The ordinary ones are called *hü* 墟, as around Canton,—the same as the *ch'ang* 場 of Szechuan. Even in England legal sale in market-overt can only take place on certain days of the week, unless ancient charter allows of daily market-overt, as is the case in the City of London.

From Ying-t'ou to Ma-lan 麻嵐 we followed pretty closely the telegraph poles along the tortuous right bank of the P'u-ch'êng River, which is here not so rocky nor so beset with rapids as I expected to find it; the main direction was north-east. The places passed were Kung-tun 龔墩 (6 *li*), Hwui-lung 廻龍 (10 *li*), and Hu-chow 澣洲 (10 *li*), which is 15 *li* from Ma-lan, all in the Ou-ning district. I noticed

that in this part of Fukien the graves are often dug horizontally in the sides of the hills, and resemble the much-talked of but far more elaborate Man-tsz-tung 蠻子洞 of Szechuan, which it now strikes me for the first time must have been graves rather than residences. There seems to be plenty of sport in the country, but I never saw any water fowl. At Kien-yang we met a party of hunters and dogs with three wild pig; at one place we saw a (?) wild cat 狸, said to be good eating, exposed for sale, and I started several pheasants, and bought a (?) capercaillie 竹雞. At Kung-tun we saw a huge performing black bear caught in the neighbourhood of Tsinan 濟南 Fu; my servants recognized the Shantung man in charge as an old acquaintance, he having previously exhibited at Wenchow.

The boundary of the P'u-ch'êng district is crossed at a distance of 20 *li* from Ma-lan, the direction being still north-east, and the village of Tsiang-k'i 蔣溪 (10 *li*) being passed on the way. The road then turns north-west, and follows up a branch of the P'u-ch'êng River, navigable for small boats for another 30 *li*. The main stream comes from P'u-ch'êng (80 *li*) past Chiu-kwan 舊管, a little north-east from the junction, and the road then quits it for a while. At a place called Yü-lin-kau 羽林橋, 10 *li* higher up the branch from the junction, still another, but unnavigable, stream joins it from the west, and the road crosses this stream and then follows the main branch as far as the considerable village of Shih-pi-kai 石陂街, 50 *li* from Ma-lan. Large villages are thickly dotted over the small and now better cultivated bits of plain enclosed between the hills, and both road and river are said to be very busy during the tea season, when thousands of Kiangsi labourers cross the frontier to aid in picking and rolling the leaf, which is purchased in driblets in the villages by the Cantonese dealers from Foochow. Though filth and dilapidation are as much the rule here as further south, yet the country appears more prosperous the more north one travels from Yenp'ing. Innumerable telegraph proclamations were here again everywhere seen, some explaining that the line was intended to defeat the aims of outsiders.

In one or two places tariffs were already published: ten cents a word to Lan-ch'i 蘭溪 or Kienning; 11 to Shao-hing and Hangchow; 12 to Nan-zing, Wu-si 無錫, Ch'üan-

chow 泉州, Ningpo, and Soochow; 13 to Shanghai, Chinkiang, and Changchow 漳州; 14 to Swatow and Yangchow; 16 to Tsi-ning 濟寧; 17 to Nanking and Tientsin; 18 to Taku and Wusung. When the whole line was open, messages would be conveyed gratis for ten days. All the way from Foochow there were posted proclamations against gaming, especially at *hwa-hwei* 花會, and frequent notices warning tea-dealers not to travel without an escort of braves, which the authorities would always detach free of charge. Certainly the government appears to take pains to foster the tea trade, which now embraces all Fukien north of Shui-k'ou.

The eighty *li* from Shih-pi-kai to P'u-ch'êng were the most interesting of this on the whole rather uninteresting route. The level of P'u-ch'êng is over 1,000 feet above that of Foochow and over 250 feet above that of Shih-pi. The gradual rise is manifest from this last point to Pai-chia-shih 白家市 (20 *li*). A ridge 500 feet high called Ta-hu-ling 大湖嶺 is then crossed, and the villages of Shih-ling 石嶺 (10 *li*) and Lin-kiang 臨江 (15 *li*) are passed. A second steeper and very beautiful ridge covered with tall firs called Lin-kiang or Si-yang-ling 夕陽 is then ascended and descended. The next places are Yü-hwei 余廻 (10 *li*), Hia-sha 下沙 (10 *li*), and Kiu-ts'iu 九秋 (8 *li*), which is 7 *li* from P'u-ch'êng. At Kiu-ts'iu we came upon the river which we had left at Ma-lan, and which is navigable for one and two ton boats up to the city. The two sources of this river enclose P'u-ch'êng on the east and west, and are both crossed by good bridges. The villages passed during the day were very much larger and more prosperous-looking than anything yet seen in Fukien; the people seemed well-fed and healthy; more of the flat land, of which there were larger stretches, was under cultivation, and P'u-ch'êng, though damaged by the rebels, is as considerable a town as either Yenp'ing Fu or even (as regards area, at least,) Kienning Fu. It is well situated in a small plain surrounded by fine hills; has a striking pagoda, and is generally a place of importance. The products are tea (of which, however, we saw almost none on the hills), lotus-nuts, bamboo-shoots, &c.

At Lin-kiang and Hia-sha we crossed two good-sized rivers, rising west and running into the P'u-ch'êng river farther to our east. The very fine covered-in Lin-kiang

bridge was used as a market. We must have crossed or seen on the day's journey at least twenty roofed bridges over creeks and gulleys. The road from Shih-pi to P'u-ch'êng is excellent, though the stones are somewhat rough for walking; indeed from Kienning northwards the road ceases to be the rambling path-way which it is further south. The rice crops over a large tract of north Fukien had failed last year for want of rain, and were still standing withered in certain places; instead of being planted with wheat, vegetables, or hemp, the paddy-land in Fukien seems to lie idle during the winter; from a pecuniary point of view, therefore, it would be advantageous to introduce the poppy, that is, if the ground would stand it. The people all the way from Foochow to P'u-ch'êng were quite as quiet and civil as in Chêkiang, and, though perhaps more thriftless and ignorant, struck me as being more confiding and warm-hearted than any Chinese I had met before. I had no escort but the *wei-yüan* for any part of the way except for 40 *li* north from Yen'ping Fu, and I doubt whether I should have been in any way unpleasantly molested even without the *wei-yüan*. I had always heard and read of Fukien and Chêkiang as the places where the people were most "ferocious," and I have on the contrary found them the least offensive.

Patna at P'u-ch'êng costs \$8.20 a catty raw, and \$1 for 1.2 oz. prepared. Malwa costs \$1 for 1.85 oz. raw, and for 1.2 oz. or 1.4 oz. prepared, accordingly as it is or is not adulterated with Patna dross. Both sorts come from Foochow alone. Wênchow drug is not allowed to be imported or sold. Tea passing into Chêkiang pays Tls. 2.8.8, or, with scale charges, \$5 a pecul duty and lekin, and this even though its original cost be only \$1 a pecul, as it in fact is. Tea used until very recently to pass through P'u-ch'êng from Ch'ung-an to Chêkiang, but now the heavy taxation completely drives it away. I ascertained at P'u-ch'êng the exact charges on tea for Foochow per picul. They are as follows:—

Likin	Tls. 0.135	} plus 2 cash a box for the Or- phanage at Yen'ping.
Duty	" 0.332	
Scale	" 0.072	
Rations	" 0.628	
Extra Likin	" 0.700	
Tls..... 1.867		

plus 14.4 % on duty } added,—say 30 % on Tls. 1.2.
 „ 16.6 % on likin }

Fukien salt (known as Chêkiang salt) brought from Fukien by sea to Wênchow, and by river thence to Ch'ü-chow 處州 and Lung-ch'üan 龍泉, is charged 2 cash a catty on crossing the Fukien frontier, and sells at P'ü-ch'êng for 22 cash. The same salt, brought through Fukien, and inferior in quality or adulterated, is called "clandestine," and sells a little lower. Thus the Fukien authorities hold salt, tea, and opium in an iron grasp.

The next day's journey was a complete puzzle to me, and it appears that, owing to the imperfection of maps, I have wandered far out of my way. I might have gone from Kienning 180 *li* by land or river to Sung-k'í district city, and thence 80 *li* across the border to K'ing-yüan 慶元 district city of Chêkiang. Instead of this, I went 360 *li* from Kienning to P'ü-ch'êng, and found that this place was distant 160 *li* from Sung-k'í, 180 *li* from Lung-ch'üan, and 220 from K'ing-yüan. So little is known of the border, that I only found one man (the veteran chair-bearer previously mentioned) all the way from Foo-chow who even knew the bare names of Lung-ch'üan and K'ing-yüan. At P'ü-ch'êng the magistrate declined and the *wei-yüan*, knowing which way I had resolved to go, perforce accepted the responsibility of sending me to such an out-of-the-way place as Lung-ch'üan; and when we actually did start, not one of the bearers, soldiers or police escort had ever been to either city. Yet I found a thickly populated and prosperous country, and an excellent level road through the mountains.

Passing round the wall of the city, and leaving to the north the telegraph and high road to K'üchow 衢州, we turned east, and crossed by a long plank bridge, ingeniously built on piers consisting of simply two crossed trees, a river (5 *li*) which runs down from Fêng-ling 嶺楓 the military border station 60 *li* to the north. Five *li* from the last named river, we crossed at So-p'ó 娑婆 another river running down from Fou-lou-k'iao 浮樓橋; these rivers join at the south gate of P'ü-ch'êng. Five more *li* brought us to the low ridge called Mu-ling-t'ou 募嶺頭, and 15 *li* further on south-east we came to the sub-district town Fu-ling 富嶺, a salt *likin* station, where we crossed

a river which enters the P'u-ch'êng river 30 *li* below P'u-ch'êng, at a place called Ta-shih-k'í 大石溪, which is 60 *li* above the point where we had left the river two days previously near Chiu-kwan 舊管. Leaving Fu-ling, we followed the left bank a little, and again crossed twice, reaching the village of Kwan-chwang 官庄, 15 *li* from Fu-ling. Then the river divides at Nan-k'ou-t'ang 南口塘, the last (or first) Fukien salt station; the main branch, running down from Ts'ien-yang 前洋, disappearing to our left. We cross the smaller stream, running from Chêng-k'eng 鄭坑, at the Nan-k'ou *likin* station, and continue to keep pretty close to the left bank as far as Ts'ien-yang, 70 *li* from P'u-ch'êng, and 15 *li* from the Lung-ch'üan frontier. Thus it is evident that the provincial boundaries are fixed by the watersheds. The mountain scenery throughout this day's journey was exceedingly fine; the people sturdy and healthy looking; and the flat parts of the country closely cultivated, and thickly dotted with villages.

Shortly after leaving Ts'ien-yang the road to Lung-ch'üan branches off to the north, the road to K'ing-yüan continuing south 160 *li* from Ts'ien-yang. K'ing-yüan is only 80 *li* from Sung-k'í in Fukien, which is 180 *li* from Kienning; there is, I was assured, no water communication of any sort at K'ing-yüan with any place whatever. K'ing-yüan is 180 *li* from Lung-ch'üan, and 180 *li* also from Pa-tu 八都, the end of our second day's journey from P'u-ch'êng, and 60 *li* from Ts'ien-yang. The frontier of Fukien and Chêkiang is at Hwa-k'iao 花橋, 15 *li* from Ts'ien-yang. All on one side of the bridge belongs to Fukien, and all on the other to Chêkiang, the right bank of the brook belonging to Lung-ch'üan and the left to K'ing-yüan. Hwa-k'iao is 1,500 feet above the sea, and uninterrupted raft navigation is possible from thence to Foochow. An ascent instantly begins as far as Kung-ts'un 龔村, 2,000 feet (5 *li*), in the K'ing-yüan district, and 5 *li* further is the considerable village of Wu-tu-liu 五都劉, belonging to Lung-ch'üan, 1,750 feet. We now follow one of the earliest sources of the Wênchow River for 15 *li*, and, crossing a low ridge, suddenly find ourselves upon a large town called Mu-tui-k'ou 水隊口, situated on the left bank of a good-sized stream navigable for rafts. We cross and re-cross this last several times, and follow

i down 15 *li* as far as Pa-tu which is the highest point to which the Ch'uchow salt boats can come. About a mile above Pa-tu, another stream from the north-west joins the Lung-ch'üan river, and gives it volume sufficient to carry one-ton boats. The mountain scenery even surpassed that of the day before, and I was more than ever surprised at the populousness of the district, many of the villages in which are larger, I am told, than K'ing-yüan city, which, like all of the ten districts subject to Ch'uchow Fu, except the prefectural (Li-shui 麗水) district and that of Ts'ing-t'ien 青田, is unwalled. Four rivers take their rise from the range of hills forming what is known as the Sien-hia-ling 仙霞嶺. A man can take his choice whether he will go thence, in a boat or on or raft, direct to Kewkiang, Foochow, Wenchow, or Hangchow.

From Pa-tu, where we crossed the river, to Lung-ch'üan it is 60 *li*, still in a north-westerly direction, but before the road reaches the first considerable village, Pu-t'ou 埠頭 (15 *li*), it leaves the river bank and does not meet it again until the city of Lung-ch'üan is entered. At Sung-k'ü 松渠, 5 *li* beyond Pu-t'ou, a small stream, which we cross, runs down to the main river from the north-west. For 5 more *li*, as far as Kau-ta-mên 高大門, we follow up a second tributary rivulet, which runs down from the north-east, and mounting gradually, pass Yüan-k'êng 元坑 5 *li* and Sin-ling 新嶺 5 *li*, 2,000 feet. At Niu-k'ou-ling 牛口嶺, 1,700 feet, 5 *li* further, we come across a new stream from the north-west, and follow the right bank down to Lung-ch'üan (15 *li*) where we cross it by a beautifully paved, roofed, and panelled bridge, elegantly supported on untrimmed trees. A short distance above this bridge, yet another river joins the Niu-k'ou tributary, which meets the main river at Lung-ch'üan, where there is now a considerable volume of water, the result of all these contributions. Lung-ch'üan city is (subject to meteorological change affecting the aneroid) 1000 feet above the sea. The district produces almost nothing for export beyond lumber and a fine hard bamboo, which is taken in bundles of slips all the way to Shaohing for making into fans. Nothing comes from Fukien, for the simple reason that everything is so highly taxed that the object is rather to keep out or to tax Chêkiang produce. Malwa is the only opium smoked in the district, and of course it comes from Lan-ch'i

via Ch'uchow; it was quoted to me at \$19 the 50 ounces raw, or 600 cash an ounce prepared. Two sorts of salt are brought from Wenchow, the grey (evidently unrefined Fukienese) at 11 cash, and the white at 16 cash.

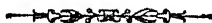
In this country the singular custom exists of building the pigsty on the street at the front of the house, just like a dog kennel. I saw none of the Zikas 余家, who I had heard are very numerous in this district, but the present mention of them reminds me of an interesting discovery I made with reference to the Hakkas of Canton. The *wei-yüan*, who came from Fuchou 撫州 in Kiangsi, used some expressions which were purely Hakka. On examining him as to the dialects of Kiangsi, I found that the peculiar aspirates and pronunciation were almost exactly like those of the Hakka, and he quite understood me when I spoke to him in the Hakka dialect. As the only tradition I could find in Canton was that the Hakkas had fled from Kiangsi for some political reason several centuries ago, I think these two pieces of evidence may be taken to definitively explode the idea that there is anything "non-Han" in the Hakkas.

At the lower end of Lung-ch'üan, there is a magnificent roofed bridge at least a quarter of a mile long partly occupied by shops and hawkers' stalls, and forming a continuation of the high street. A fleet of 5,000 or 6,000 sampans, each carrying about a ton of salt (2,000 catties), is regularly employed in carrying Fukien (Hinghwa 興化) salt to Ch'uchow and Wenchow. At the latter place, the salt costs 3 to 4 cash; at Ts'ing-t'ien it pays 1.3 *likin*; at Ch'uchow 1.9; and Lung-ch'üan 1.5 cash a catty; here it sells for 11 to 12 cash, so that a profit of 4 cash or so remains. Each boat worked by one man averages a round journey a month, so that 72,000 tons of salt give employment and \$7 a month to 5,000 men. The boats are very much like a gig in shape, size, and framing, but the ends are pointed; each costs about \$10 new; and each carries a tunnel-like matshed cover, which costs about \$1. They move in fleets of 10 or 20, for mutual aid is required in getting over the shallows and rapids. The sail of T'aichow cloth (\$1), mast, pike, stove (12 cents) and pan are all on exactly the same patterns, and they may be said to march, bivouac and manoeuvre like companies of soldiers. I came down in one of these boats all the 200 miles from Lung-ch'üan to

Wenchow. Rapids succeed each other every half mile or so for the first 50 miles, and small streams help to swell the river at intervals, but none of them are navigable even for rafts; these salt boats bring down cargoes of paper, bamboo-ware, dried edible bamboo-shoots, &c.

The Yün-ho 雲和 boundary is entered at Wei-ning-k'ou 威甯口 (60 *li*)? on the right bank, and Mu-ch'i 木溪 (90 *li*) on the left. This district is one of the few in Chêkiang which produces iron, an article not mined anywhere in Fukien. Yün-ho city is on the right bank, and not on the left as marked in the map published in the Customs Reports; it is 15 *li* from the river, and is reached thence by raft only. The port of Yün-ho, very beautifully situated, is called Chüo-ts'un 腳村, 135 *li* from Lung-ch'üan, and 150 *li* from Ch'uchow by land. The boundary between Yün-ho and Li-shui (Ch'uchow Fu) districts is at Ch'ih-tsi-t'ing 赤濟亭, 35 *li* below Chüo-ts'un. Ten *li* further down is the embouchure of the Sung-yang 松陽 river, the only tributary above Ch'uchow, navigable by even one-ton boats; thence it is 60 *li* to Ch'uchow, and 70 *li* to Sung-yang city. Sung-yang and Sui-ch'ang 遂昌 cities are both 180 *li* overland from Lung-ch'üan. The mountains become bare, and the country opens out for a while after the Yün-ho district is quitted. The river, which was as clear as crystal down to Chüo-ts'un, is muddied for a certain distance by the Yün-ho creek. I only saw one single specimen of the Zika women walking along the bank,—which was very disappointing, as my chief object in coming to Lung-ch'üan was to find out more about them.

Ten *li* above Ch'uchow a river, navigable for rafts, and even for boats at the freshet period, joins the main river from Sün-p'ing 宣平 district city.



ARTICLE V.

A BUDDHIST SHEET-TRACT,

*Containing an Apologue of Human Life.**

Translated, with Notes, by Bishop MOULE of Hangchow.

THIS tract, one of very many circulated as an act of meritorious devotion, is printed in clear woodcut on a sheet of thin white paper about twenty-five inches by eleven.

The upper half presents a symbolical picture in outline, the blank spaces filled with inscriptions in metre.

In the upper corner to the right is Buddha, a *nimbus* round the head, and throned on clouds.

Immediately below is a group consisting of Buddha, 'The Venerable One,' conversing with king Udâyana who is followed by an attendant. They are observing an elephant standing near a well, its head raised with threatening tusks towards a man, who clings to a wild-vine, pendulous in mid-air. From the well emerge three dragons. Around it are four serpents. They all threaten the man who hangs above them.

The man regards them not, intent on watching bees that flit around him. On the branch from which his vine depends, are a black and a white rat gnawing so as gradually to sever the branch. But the man takes no notice of the rats either.

Inscription below the enthroned Buddha (pentasyllabic).

Kind parents and kinsfolk
Are short lived as a puppet-show:
When King Yen ⁽¹⁾ has once called thee,
None of them whatever can be thy substitute.

* Read before the Society 22nd January, 1884. A specimen of the Tract described accompanies this paper.

(1) Yen, Yama, the Indian Pluto.



恩親與眷屬
暫如傀儡戲
闍君一聲叫
誰也不能替

人命無常呼吸間眼觀紅日落西山
寶山力盡空回手一失人身萬劫難

閑觀捕紙蠅笑痴人自生障礙靜看諍巢鵲歎
桀紂空稱英雄看破有盡之身萬境塵緣自息
悟入無壞之境一輪心月獨朗世事如棋不著
才是高手人生似瓦盆打破方見真空

雲烟影中現真身始悟我相是枷鎖
禽鳥聲中聞自性方知情識是戈矛
聽靜夜之鐘聲喚醒夢中之
夢觀水中之月影看
見身外之身

勸君學道莫貪求
萬事無心道合頭

無心是體
無心道體
得無心
無也休



無世本

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寶山才盡空回手一夫人海萬劫難
入命無常細細問不勝珠日慈西山

無世本之結 與夢中之
食夢中法自結 亦味昔夢長安子
重歸夢中法自食 故時非時長時難

對入無夢之意 歸心月夜時世清夢不著
長空解英壯厚如 遠之月夢夢夢夢夢夢
隨隨解英壯厚如 遠之月夢夢夢夢夢夢



惟世不無
無世一
世世一



Couplets (heptasyllabic) in front of Buddha.

* Man's life is inconstant depending on his breath ;
 Heap a mountain of treasures with might and main, yet empty
 wilt thou leave off.
 Let the eye watch the ruddy sun sink below the western hill ;
 (2) Once lose the human form, then a myriad kalpas of
 misfortune !

Phrases in long lines partly rhythmical.

Idly as I watched the capture of the fly settled on the paper, I
 smiled at idiot-man who raises obstructions in his own way.
 In quiet as I gazed at magpies wrangling for the nest, I sighed
 to think of (3) Kieh and Chow vainly boasting themselves
 heroes.

Phrases of six syllables.

If you see through (so as to be undeceived by) the finite body,
 The worldly entanglements of the myriad conditions cease of
 themselves !

Awake and enter the unfading condition !
 The moon of the heart, a whole disc, alone is brilliant.
 Worldly affairs are like chess ;
 Not to play is the test of true skill.
 Human life is as an earthen vessel ;
 Break it, and at once you see its emptiness.

Couplets (heptasyllabic).

Amidst the show of cloud and vapour appears (4) the true body ;
 Then I am aware that my likeness is that of a felon in the
 pillory !

Amidst the cries of the birds is heard the original nature
 (Svabhava. Eitel) ;

Then know I that sensual knowledge is as spear and dart !

Couplets (heptasyllabic).

Hark, in the still night, the voice of the bell
 (5) Calls to awake the dream within the dream !
 Behold in the water the moon's reflection ;
 And see the body external (6) to the body !

* My teacher reads these four lines in the alternate order thus,
 1, 3, 2, 4.

(2) *Kalpa*, (See Eitel's Handbook of Buddhism *sub voce*) a vast
 measure of time.

(3) *Kieh*, of the 18th cent. B. C., *Chow*, of the 12th, infamous tyrants:
 See Mayers's Chinese Reader's Manual.

(4) The apotheosis of Buddha (?)

(5) Query? "the dream within etc—" = the man within the material
 world, or (Professor Cowell) "the real self within the external self; this
 real self being itself non-existent in the last resort."

(6) Is this the 法身, spiritual and immortal body "that accompanies
 us in our transmigrations" (Cowell), or is it Buddha present in this world
 by reflection ?

couplets (heptasyllabic).

(7) I exhort you Sirs to learn the (true) doctrine and leave off covetous quests.

The doctrine of No-mind sums all things.

The negation of mind (? or He who renounces will) is in harmony with the doctrine of No-mind.

When in harmony with the no-mind doctrine (8) negation too ceases. (? or there is negation and resi).

The lower half of the Sheet presents the Avadâna, or Apologue of the man taking refuge in the tree from the pursuit of the mad elephant—followed by Gâtha on the same subject, prose exhortations, the admonitions of the Kuõh-sze of Chung-fêng, and an extract from another sheet-tract on Patience.

Title.—(*Translation of*) An illustrated discourse on the causes and affinities of misery and happiness extracted from the Canonical Books of Great Thibet.


Once on a time Udâyana Rajah (King of Kaus'ambi. Eitel) put a question to the Venerable One, Pinteulu (9), saying: In the law of Buddha what is the principle of religious (ascetic) observance?

The Venerable One answered and said:—Figure to yourself a man journeying in a wilderness, surrounded by a conflagration, and pursued by a mad elephant.

He sees a well, beside which stands a tree. On the tree grows a wild vine drooping over the well. The man to escape the elephant seizes the vine, and climbs up above the well. In the well are three venomous dragons, and without it, four venomous serpents, together watching (for prey). In the tree are a black and a white rat gnawing at the wild vine in order to sever it. There are venomous bees, too, which sting the man. But the bees from time to time distil a tiny drop of honey into the man's mouth.

The man in his craving for the honey straightway forgets his peril!

Is the man wretched, say you, or happy?

(7) I have no (Buddhist) data by which to fix the meaning of these metaphysical lines. I suspect that "will" would fit them better than "mind" as the equivalent of , but am not sure.

(8) (?) Negative and positive alike are gone.

(9) Pinteulu does not occur in Eitel as a name of Buddha, so far as I can find.

The King made answer: This man's condition is wretched wholly, what happiness hath he?

The Venerable One proceeded; All knowledge (? or all the wise) needs parable to unfold it.

Thereupon he spake a sacred rhythm (*gāthā*. See Eitel) as follows: The attack of the two rats on the vine is, verily, the hundred miseries. The four serpents around the well are, too, the thousand cares. When on a sudden the vine-root is gnawed asunder, down plunging, when can he raise his head again?

The wilderness is the ⁽¹⁰⁾ three worlds. The tree is the human body. Man, in the midst of all miseries, sins nevertheless beyond possibility of computation. The vine is the root of destiny (or life). The Elephant is the man-slaying demon, Wu-ch'ang ⁽¹¹⁾. The two rats are the two discs (? or orbits) of the sun and moon, which in their revolution urge on the man. The well is the path of the ⁽¹²⁾ yellow pool. The three venomous dragons are Concupiscence, Wrath, and Insane Desire; whose threefold poison results in the three evil ways (or conditions) of Tartarus, the Starving Ghosts, and Brute Beasts. The four serpents are Earth, Water, Fire, Air, those four great (elements); or Wine, Beauty, Wealth, Envy, those four mischiefs; or Birth, Age, Disease, Death, those four gates (of life).

The hand that clings to the vine is the covetous hankering of the foolish and insane mind after the world's entanglements. The bees' honey is the dear love of husband and wife, the infection of the heart by the lewd lust and sensual love of animate beings. The heart is a fire; the body a tenement. The man in his burning house perceives not that it is being day and night consumed by the crowd of miseries combined. He covets but that dear love (till) one morning the stem of destiny cut through; down for evermore he falls into perdition, and his human form once lost, he shall hardly recover it in a myriad of *Kalpas*.

I exhort all men (therefore), whilst still this body of

⁽¹⁰⁾ The three worlds (*Trailoka*) of desire, of form, and of formless-ness (See Eitel).

⁽¹¹⁾ *Wu-ch'ang*—"Transitory,"—the messenger of Hades.

⁽¹²⁾ The Grave.—Mencius (iii, 2, x) speaks of the worm that "feeds on the dry dust and drinks of the yellow pool."

form is hale and strong, in the midst of business to snatch some leisure, and daily at dawn and dusk recite, with single heart, NAMA AMIDA BUDDHA! ⁽¹³⁾ This done a thousand or a myriad times in the present world will add to your happiness and diminish calamity. And when you reach the end of life, you will assuredly migrate by ⁽¹⁴⁾ a birth to the most blissful world of the Western clime. ⁽¹⁵⁾

There is a Hymn ⁽¹⁶⁾ that says:

The wild-vine (as it severs) hurries us down into the pit. Elephant, rats, serpents assail us; the hand must needs hold fast!

Our self-nature Mita waits (longing) that we may awake betimes, ⁽¹⁷⁾

And not be suffered to incur ⁽¹⁸⁾ the three paths of misery. The rich sweetness of wine and flesh are honey in arsenic. ⁽¹⁹⁾

Dearly loving spouses, a dagger hidden in smiles.

Let me exhort all men to awake in good earnest and not let to-morrow be added to to-day (? in delays).

⁽²⁰⁾ ADMONITORY SAYINGS OF THE KUOH-SZE OF CHUNG-FÊNG.

A year and yet a year! Alter by degrees form and feature.

At first you played, a child. See, see, your hair is all white,

Do not brew troubles for the hereafter. Be converted and plant the field of bliss.

Wait not for Wu-ch'ang's coming. Go forward betimes in religious observance.

A month and yet a month! The shadow (on the dial) is like melting snow.

Sun and moon both have no delays. In their mystic changes are life and destruction.

A little reality excels much emptiness. Better is simplicity than cunning craft.

When King Yama sends his message, he is not afraid of thy eloquence.

⁽¹³⁾ "I take refuge in thee Amidabha Buddha!"

⁽¹⁴⁾ i.e. by metempsychosis.

⁽¹⁵⁾ This Paradise is the characteristic substitute for Nirvana in the system of Northern Buddhism.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Sung = Geya (see Eitel)

⁽¹⁷⁾ Mita, (qu ?) abbreviation for Amidabha, seems identified with our self-nature (Svabhava).

⁽¹⁸⁾ Hell, Ghosts, and Brute Existence, the last three of the six ways (conditions) of existence.

⁽¹⁹⁾ One would have expected "arsenic in honey."

⁽²⁰⁾ Kuoh-sze, Teacher of the nation, title of a famous Monk of (qu:) one of the Monasteries on T'ian-muh Shan in Chêkiang; of which Chung-fêng seems to be one of the peaks.

A day and yet a day! In the morning he goes forth, in the evening he returns to set (*i.e.* the sun, but [qu:] the man—to die).

From vain fancies canst thou not cease? When wilt thou leave off thy covetous loves?

Just like a fish in too shallow water—quickly shouldst thou leap out!

Don't wait till the water in the pool is dry, and then, vain labour! cry out on your wrongs.

An hour and yet an hour! move forward step by step.

(²¹) The fine folks, thoughtless of treading the high road, are their own misleaders.

We exhort you, masters, yet you give no heed, only caring for the rich morsel in the mouth.

Some day when Wu-ch'ang is come, then indeed repentance will be too late.

A minute and yet a minute, so day and night hurry each other on.

Bewildered, men turn not the head. (²²) The heart may verily grieve at it.

Let me exhort all men living in religious observance surely to use might and main.

How many in old times and now, once gone, left no sound behind!

From a Tract on Patience published at the same place:—

Yield a pace! 'Tis the true road of religious observance among men.

Give a move (at chess)! Don't, for your life, wrangle about who is the best man.

Put up with a (rude) word! You thereby leave no place for mischief to breed in.

Endure an hour! The pit of fire shall be thus transformed to the white lotus pool!

(*Signature.*)—Printed for general circulation at the Sacred Book Shop of the Agate-stone (²³).—Teh-chung, a vowed Ascetic of Shan-tung reverently caused it to be engraved.

On the tract, translated above, Professor Cowell of Cambridge, in a letter acknowledging the receipt of this and three other tracts, accompanied by versions into English, says:—"The third tract particularly interested me. I mean

(²¹) An obscure line. Possibly 大道 is not the high but the broad road.

(²²) 靈臺 the Spirit-stage, a phrase for the heart.

(²³) A large Depot for Sûtras (Ching) and Buddhist and Taoist works of all sizes, at Hangchow.

“ the one that contained the Apologue of the Man and the
 “ Well. I have always been extremely interested in this
 “ story. You may remember that Abp. Trench quoted it
 “ in a note at the end of the 4th chap. of his Introduction
 “ to ‘The Parables’ (p. 60). He quotes it from Deslong-
 “ champ’s *Fables Indiennes*, but I do not think it has ever
 “ yet been found in any Sanscrit original, though we
 “ doubt not it will be found in some yet unpublished Pali
 “ or Northern Text. I found it in the early mediæval
 “ romance of Josaphat and Barlaam which Max Müller
 “ has shewn to be only a Christian adaptation of the
 “ Buddha legend, and I have also read it in the great
 “ Persian mystical poem of the 13th century, the Masnavé.
 “ But I think you will be most interested to hear that
 “ Julien gives it in his ‘Avadânas ou Contes et Apologues
 “ Indiens,’ translated from the Chinese. He gives two
 “ versions of it—Nos. xxxii and liii. The former he says
 “ is an extract from ‘l’ouvrage intitulé *Fo-pi-yu-king*, ou
 “ *Livre des Comparaisons*, exposé par le Bouddha. Section x.’
 “ The latter is an extract from ‘l’ouvrage intitulé *Tchong-*
 “ *king-siouen-tsi-pi-yu-king*, ou *Choix de Comparaisons*
 “ *tirées des livres sacrés.*”

“ The first agrees very closely indeed with the version
 “ in the tract.

“ Those Chinese lines seem to me really very beautiful,
 “ ‘Hark in the still night the bell’s voice calleth to awake
 “ the dream within the dream.’ ‘Behold in the water, etc.,’
 “ though I am not sure that I understand it aright.”

The Professor (who has been for some years a student of Buddhism in the Thibetan Mss. preserved in the University Library) proceeds to give his view of the meaning in a sentence or two which I have quoted above, p. 2, *notes*.

In a subsequent letter he has sent me an extract in Greek from the Legend of Barlaam and Josaphat curiously like our tract, which I subjoin.

An interesting account of the Legend will be found in Col. Yule’s *Marco Polo*, Vol. ii, pp. 305-sqq. John of Damascus, in whose works it is (apparently) first given, flourished in the 8th Century A.D.

The Greek extract is as follows :—

. . . . τὰς δὲ ψυχὰς ἑῶντας λιμῶ κατατήκεσθαι καὶ μυρίοις ταλαιπωρεῖσθαι κακοῖς, ὁμοίους εἶναι δοκῶ ἀνδρὶ φεύγοντι ἀπὸ προσώπου μαινομένου μονοκέρωτος, ὃς μὴ φέρων τὸν ἦχον τῆς αὐτοῦ βοῆς καὶ τὸν φοβερὸν αὐτοῦ μυκηθμὸν, ἀλλ' ἰσχυρῶς ἀποδιδράσκων τοῦ μὴ γενέσθαι τούτου κατάβρωμα, ἐν τῷ τρέχειν αὐτὸν ὀξέως μεγάλῳ τινὶ περιπέπτωκε βόθρῳ· ἐν δὲ τῷ ἐμπίπτειν αὐτῷ, τὰς χεῖρας ἐκτείνας, καὶ φυτοῦ τινὸς δραξάμενος κραταιῶς τοῦτο κατέσχε, καὶ ἐπὶ βασιεύς τινος τοὺς πόδας στηρίξας, ἔδοξεν ἐν εἰρήνῃ λοιπὸν εἶναι καὶ ἀσφαλείᾳ. Βλέψας δὲ ὁρᾷ δύο μύας, λευκὸν μὲν τὸν ἓνα μέλανα δὲ τὸν ἕτερον, διεσθίοντας ἀπαύστως τὴν ρίζαν τοῦ φυτοῦ, οὗ ἦν ἐξηρητημένος, καὶ ὅσον οὐπω ἐγγίζοντας ταύτην ἐκτεμεῖν. Κατανοήσας δὲ τὸν πυθμένα τοῦ βόθρου δράκοντα εἶδε φοβερὸν τῇ θεᾷ, πῦρ πνέοντα καὶ δριμύτατα βλοσυροῦντα, τὸ στόμα τε δεινῶς περιχάσκοντα καὶ καταπιεῖν αὐτὸν ἐπειγόμενον. Ἀτενίσας τε αὖθις τῇ βάσει ἐκείνῃ ἐφ' ἣ τούς πόδας εἶχεν ἐρηρυσμένους, τέσσαρας εἶδε κεφαλὰς ἀσπίδων τοῦ τοίχου προβεβληκυίας ἐφ' οὗ ἐπεστήρικτο. Ἀνάβλεψας δὲ τοὺς ὀφθαλμούς ὁρᾷ ἐκ τῶν κλάδων τοῦ φυτοῦ ἐκείνου μικρὸν ἀποστάζον μέλι. Ἐάσας οὖν διασκέψασθαι περὶ τῶν περιεχουσῶν αὐτῇ συμφορῶν, ὅπως ἔξωθεν μὲν ὁ μονόκερως δεινῶς ἐκμανεῖς ζητεῖ τοῦτον καταφαγεῖν, κάτωθεν δὲ ὁ πικρὸς δράκων κέχνηε καταπιεῖν, τὸ δὲ φυτὸν ὃ περιεδίδρακτο ὅσον οὐπω ἐκκόπτεσθαι ἔμελλε, τοὺς δὲ πόδας ἐπ' ὀλισθηρᾷ καὶ ἀπίστῃ βάσει ἐπεστήρικτο·—τῶν τοσούτων οὖν καὶ τοιούτων φρικτῶν θεαμάτων ἀλογίστως ἐπιλαθόμενος, ὄλῳ νοῦ μέλιτος ἐκεινοῦ τοῦ μικροῦ γέγονε τῆς ἡδύτητος ἐκκρεμῆς.

Barlaam and Josaphat, p. 112.

A version of the Greek extract, which however does not pretend to be accurate, may be of service to some of my audience.

"I consider those who allow their souls to be wasted with hunger and distressed with a myriad evils to resemble a man flying before a raging unicorn (rhinoceros), who, not enduring the sound of his roaring and his frightful bellowing, but running off with might and main to avoid becoming a meal for him, in his swift course has fallen into a vast pit. But as he falls, extending his hands and grasping a shrub he clings to it with all his strength, and steadying his feet on some support fancies himself, for the rest, in peace and safety. He looks and sees two mice, the one white the other black, ceaselessly eating through the root of the shrub to which he has attached himself, and going on so as only not yet quite to sever it. Then he considers the bottom of the pit and perceives a dragon terrible to see, breathing fire and grimly awe-inspiring, gaping fearfully too and eager to swallow him up. Once more fixing his gaze on that support on which he has his feet planted, he sees four serpents' heads projecting out of the wall on which he has got his support. But casting his eyes upwards he sees from among the branches of the shrub a little honey distilling. Giving up at once the consideration of the calamities that surround him,—how that from without the unicorn awfully raving seeks to devour him, and from beneath there is the savage dragon yawning to swallow him up, and the shrub he has grasped is going, only not yet, to be severed, and that he has planted his feet on a slippery and unsafe support,—most unreasonably, I say, forgetting all these great sights of terror, with his whole mind he becomes enchained by the sweetness of that mere drop of honey."

The Professor gave me the following explanatory note. "In the explanations the unicorn is said to represent Death, the pit is the world, the plant is our life consumed by day and night, the four serpents are the four elements which compose the body, the dragon below is Hades, and the honey is the sweetness of the pleasures of the world, by which it deceives its friends, and will not let them take thought for their own salvation."

ARTICLE VI.

TRADE ROUTES TO WESTERN CHINA.*

BY

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BARON F. VON RICHTHOFEN in his valuable letter addressed to the Committee of the Shanghai General Chamber of Commerce in 1872 devotes an occasional page to the subject of Trade Routes in Western China, more especially in the province of Yünnan; but, as that distinguished traveller was, owing to an unfortunate accident, compelled to abandon his projected journey from Ssü-ch'uan into Yünnan, and his descriptions of the trade roads in the latter province were therefore derived from hearsay, it may not be out of place for one who has recently performed the journey which he abandoned, and who has traversed four trade roads to Yünnan, to endeavour to supplement his remarks.

I shall not, however, confine my attention to the province of Yünnan; but I shall endeavour briefly to point out the existing trade routes to Western China, and to examine their relative advantages.

By Western China I mean the provinces of Ssü-ch'uan, Kueichou, and Yünnan.

I.—SSÜ-CH'UAN.

The great trade highway into Ssü-ch'uan is the River Yangtsze and its numerous tributaries.

By the Agreement of Chefoo facilities were granted for the navigation of the Upper Yangtsze by the opening of the port of Ichang and the permission to ascend by steamer as far west as Ch'ungking, the great commercial centre of the province of Ssü-ch'uan.

Advantage has been taken of these facilities to navigate as far as Ichang; and, except during the winter months when shallows interfere with vessels drawing more than six

feet, a steamer runs regularly between Hankow and Ichang; and I understand that a Company has recently been formed whose object it is to run a couple of steamers between these two places at all seasons.

No attempt has yet been made, however, to steam as far west as Ch'ungking; and one would naturally assume that obstacles bar the way. All the year round native boats navigate the waters between Ichang and Ch'ungking, and we hesitate to be driven to the conclusion that obstacles surmountable by native craft are insurmountable by steam.

The obstacles to native craft are the rapids and the strong current, the former when the river is low, that is, during winter and spring, and the latter during the rest of the year when the river is flooded. Many of the larger boats have a draught of more than five feet, and insufficient depth of water has never been adduced as an obstacle to steam. In ascending from Ichang these boats, except in the gorges where the current is sluggish, are tracked by the river's bank; and when the river is low, they are dragged over the rapids by sheer human strength. I say, when the river is low, for during summer and autumn the rapids disappear under the great rise of water, and then there exists no obstacle to prevent a steamer of sufficient power from ascending as far as Ch'ungking and even as far as Hsüchou Fu, better known as Sui Fu, which for all practical purposes is the highest navigable point on the River Yangtsze.

We have said that the Yangtsze is the great trade highway into Ssü-ch'uan, and from and to it goods are carried by land and water, principally the latter.

The Kia-ling, which enters the Yangtsze at Ch'ungking, supplies the north and partly the east; the T'ö, which enters the Yangtsze at Luchou, supplies the centre; and the Min, which joins the Yangtsze at Sui Fu, supplies the capital and the west of the province. These streams also bring down to the Great River, as the Yangtsze is called between Ichang and Sui Fu, the products of the districts which they drain.

In addition to these three streams which enter the Yangtsze from the north, are several others which join it from the south; but they are more concerned with supplying goods to and bringing produce from Kueichou and Yünnan

than the south of Ssü-ch'uan, and will be noticed when we come to deal with these provinces.

The time and labour required to carry the goods by native craft from Ichang to Ch'ungking and to distribute them throughout the province, seriously raise the value of the goods and necessarily limit their consumption; and there cannot be the least doubt that, were the facilities granted by the Agreement of Chefoo taken advantage of, goods could be laid down economically and without risk in Ch'ungking, and a great development of the trade in substantial foreign manufactures would be the result.

The province of Ssü-ch'uan contains a population some five or six times greater than either Kueichou or Yünnan, and a population wealthy as compared with the populations of these smaller provinces; and the energy of the foreign merchant instead of being wholly diverted to supplying the requirements of Yünnan—requirements insignificant when those of Ssü-ch'uan are considered—should be devoted to availing himself of the advantages conceded by the Agreement of Chefoo, and thereby open up to foreign trade the largest province in the Empire with its population of about thirty millions.

But let not the foreign manufacturer and merchant think, as some recent writers would have them believe—that these millions of Western China are waiting to array themselves in foreign piece goods. No such thing. For the ordinary working classes, such as agriculturists, carriers and coolies, which form a large proportion of the population, these goods are altogether unsuited; and to supply their wants Ssü-ch'uan annually imports from the Hukuang provinces raw cotton and manufactured goods, the value of which cannot be placed at less than two millions sterling. These cottons are warm and substantial; and when the wear and tear of years have reduced them to rags, they are converted to numerous other uses.

The foreign manufacturer and merchant may well be content if they can supply that percentage of the population, such as shopkeepers and the wealthier classes, which has not to earn its livelihood by hard manual labour.

In a word, the trade highway into Ssü-ch'uan is the Upper Yangtze. For conducting and developing this trade, facilities have been granted by the Agreement of Chefoo;

but hitherto they have not been taken advantage of, owing to certain obstacles which sooner or later will be found to be more imaginary than real.

Is the trade of Ch'ungking, which now falls little short of forty million taels a year, to be left undeveloped? I leave the answer to the foreign merchant. That no other trade route can possibly compete with the Yangtsze route I shall endeavour to show anon.

When the Yangtsze is flooded the greater part of the junks are laid up, the owners preferring to relinquish freight rather than expose their property to the numerous risks which threaten unwieldy craft during summer and autumn; and since at these seasons no obstacles exist to the navigation of the Upper Yangtsze, almost the entire carrying trade would fall to a steamer.

There is a trade route from Canton to Ssü-ch'uan—before the opening of the Yangtsze a most important route—a great part of which can be accomplished on the inland waters of the provinces of Kuangtung, Hunan, and Ssü-ch'uan. The trade along this route is now insignificant, consisting for the most part of peddlery, and is of no interest to foreign commerce with which in these pages we are more immediately concerned. For the same reason I pass over without remark the great northern trade road to Ch'ang-tu, the provincial capital of Ssü-ch'uan, and the road from the latter city to Thibet by way of Lithang and Bathang.

II.—KUEICHOU.

The River Yangtsze is also the basis of trade routes to the province of Kueichou. These we shall discuss in order, beginning from the east.

(1). *One of the most important trade routes to Kueichou begins at Hankow, crosses the Tung-t'ing Lake, and ascends the Yüan River as far as the city of Chên-yüan Fu, the highest navigable point in Kueichou, and distant seven days' journey from Kueiyang Fu, the capital of the province. This is well known as the route followed by the late Mr. Margary on his way to Yunnan.*

Goods intended for the east of Kueichou are mostly carried by this route, which, although occupying more time—at least two months—than the Great River route to Ch'ung-

k'ing and thence overland to Kueichou, is preferred to the latter for various and some of them obvious reasons. The whole journey into eastern Kueichou can be performed by water without a single transshipment; the imposts leviable in Ssü-ch'uan on goods passing through the province are avoided; and, although there are numerous rapids which seriously interfere with the navigation of the Yüan River, they are not so dangerous or formidable for native craft as the rapids on the Great River.

For northern and western Kueichou other routes are followed; and, with one exception, they all lie to the west of Ch'ungking. This exception is the

(2). *Kung-t'an River or Wu River route.*

The Kung-t'an River, which enters the Yangtsze at Fuchou, seventy-two geographical miles to the east of Ch'ungking, derives its name from a place called Kung-t'an near the Ssü-ch'uan-Kueichou border, and distant four hundred and fifty *li* from its mouth. This river, which rises in the west of Kueichou and crosses the province, is known as the Wu River until it reaches the frontier. It is also called the Fuchou River from the city at its mouth.

It is not navigable the whole distance from Fuchou to Kung-t'an, for goods have to be transhipped at a place called Yang-ko-ch'i, 120 *li* from Fuchou, and carried overland a distance of about a mile. The chief places on its banks are Yang-ko-ch'i, Chiang-k'ou, P'êng-shui Hsien, and Kung-t'an, distant respectively 120, 210, 330, and 450 *li* from Fuchou.

The up trade is insignificant; but the down trade is important, consisting principally of wood-oil, bean-cake, opium, hemp, indigo, charcoal, firewood, Indian corn, potatoes, cereals, and drugs.

The river is shallow, and only boats of light draught attempt the up-journey, which occupies some five days.

(3). *The Ch'ungking overland and*

(4). *Ch'i-chiang River routes.*

These are virtually one route, as the Ch'ungking overland route passes Ch'i-chiang Hsien from which the river derives its name. The overland journey from

Ch'ungk'ing to Ch'i-chiang Hsien occupies three days, while four days are required to accomplish the journey by boat from the mouth of the river to the district city. Above Ch'i-chiang Hsien the river is very shallow and is navigable only by the smallest craft as far as Hsin-chan in Kueichou, another two days' journey. From Ch'i-chiang Hsien goods can be carried to Kueiyang Fu, the capital of Kueichou in twelve days or even less.

This is an important trade route, and by it north-eastern Kueichou is supplied with salt from Ssü-ch'uan.

Ch'i-chiang Hsien is distant 360 *li* from the river's mouth; and the chief places on its banks are Pei-tu, Kuang hsing-ch'ang, Wu-ch'a'-ho, Chia-hsi-ch'iao, Chên-wu-ch'ang, Jên-shih-to, and Chiang-k'ou at its junction with the Great River.

(4). *The Jên-huai River or Chih-shui River route.*

This river which in its upper waters is known as the Chih-shui, flows past Jên-huai T'ing in northern Kueichou and enters the Great River at Ho-chiang Hsien, 95 geographical miles west of Ch'ungk'ing, and a three days' journey by river.

A glance at a map of China will show that at this point the Great River is no great distance from the Kueichou frontier; and the up-river journey from Ho-chiang Hsien to Jên-huai T'ing occupies only a couple of days. Between these two cities there are only two places of any importance, namely, Li-ch'i-tzŭ and Ch'uan-shih. The up trade consists almost entirely of Ssü-ch'uan salt; the down trade in pine trees and in pine boards, bamboos, wood-oil, rape-seed oil, indigo, charcoal, firewood, lump coal, paper, cereals, and soot for the manufacture of ink.

(5). *The Luchou and Yung-ning River Route.*

With the exception of the Tung-t'ing Lake and Yüan River route, this is the most important trade road to Kueichou; and, in my opinion, it is the best line of communication with Yünnan, from the Yangtze.

Luchou is a city of great commercial importance on the north bank of the Great River at its junction with the T'o River, 129 geographical miles west of Ch'ungk'ing. It is the great salt depôt of Ssü-ch'uan. Thirteen miles west

of Luchou and on the opposite bank of the river is the district city of Na-chi, a place of no importance in itself; but it lies on the right bank and at the mouth of the Yung-ning River, a waterway of the highest commercial value, for by this route the total salt supply of western Kueichou finds its way from Luchou. It is navigable as far as the district city of Yung-ning,—from which it derives its name,—and which is distant a three days' journey from the Kueichou frontier. From the frontier another three days are required to reach the flourishing district city of Pi-chieh, which, although one of the most important commercial cities in Kueichou, is not to be found on the ordinary foreign maps of China. This city is distant seven days' journey from Kueiyang Fu and fifteen days from Yünnan Fu.

The whole journey from Yünnan Fu to Luchou can thus be performed in twenty-two days, for the Yung-ning River can be descended in a single day, although during last year I was, owing to certain mishaps, detained a couple of days on it. On the up journey from Luchou to Yung-ning Hsien, boats have to be tracked the whole way, and a week or more is required to accomplish it according to the state of the river. The overland journey between these two places occupies four days. In many places the river is very narrow, and it has a fair number of rapids.

The road from Yung-ning Hsien to Yünnan Fu is one of the best I have seen in China. It is paved and in good repair throughout its whole length. Before the rebellion it was the chief outlet for the copper from the numerous mines in the west of Kueichou; and an attempt is now being made by the provincial authorities concerned to induce trade to revert to this channel. Unfortunately, however, there are three great obstacles to a swifter means of communication between the Yangtze and Yünnan Fu. They are the valleys of the K'o-tu, Ch'i-hsing, and Chih-shui Rivers respectively. Were these three deep and broad chasms bridged, as doubtless they could be, but at an enormous expense, we should not despair of seeing Yünnan Fu connected with Shanghai by steam.

As I have said above, the salt supply of western Kueichou follows this route, which is also followed by piece goods manufactured in Ssü-ch'uan from Hukuang

cotton. I was surprised that the trade with Yünnan by this route was not more extensive; but the reason is not far to seek. Goods intended for Yünnan by this route have to pass through the province of Kueichou and thus incur additional taxation. It is only natural, therefore, that merchants should prefer to carry their goods into Yünnan by the Sui Fu route, of which I shall speak anon.

III.—YÜNNAN.

I pass now to the province of Yünnan which has occupied so much of the attention of recent writers.

The trade routes to this province are

(1). *The Nan-kuang River route;*

(2). *The Ta-kuan River route.*

These two rivers enter the Yangtsze the one below and the other above Sui Fu; and they constitute what may be called the Sui Fu route to Yünnan. These two roads converge and meet at the town of Lao-ya-t'an—usually known as Lao-wa-t'an—which lies on the left bank of the Ta-kuan River within the Yünnan border in the prefecture of Chaot'ung. Lao-ya-t'an is distant from Chaot'ung Fu, Tungch'uan Fu, and Yünnan Fu, six, eleven, and nineteen days' journey respectively. From Lao-ya-t'an to Sui Fu the Ta-kuan River route is preferred because boat can be taken at Lao-ya-t'an; whereas the Nan-kuang river is not navigable until the town of Huang-shui-k'ou, more than a three days' journey from Lao-ya-t'an and within the province of Ssüch'uan, is reached. Neither of the two rivers is navigable throughout; rocks bar the Nan-kuang River at its very mouth, while on the Ta-kuan River goods have to be transhipped and carried overland a distance of fifteen *li* near the Yünnan-Ssü-ch'uan frontier. The road from Yünnan Fu to Lao-ya-t'an is difficult beyond description; it is infinitely inferior to the Luchou route; and it may safely be predicted that it will always remain what it is—a very bad horse road. By this route northern Yünnan is supplied with foreign piece goods, salt, and Hukuang cottons, while lead, copper, sugar, and P'u-êrh tea are the principal exports.

(3). *The Chien-ch'ang valley route to Yünnan.*

(4). *The Chien-ch'ang valley route by way of*

Ningyüan Fu, Yen-yüan Hsien, and Yung-pei T'ing to western Yünnan.

Goods are carried from Sui Fu up the Min River to Chiating Fu on its right bank and at its junction with the Ta-tu River. Here they are transhipped into smaller boats which carry them up the Ya-chou River, which enters the Ta-tu before its junction with the Min, to Yachou Fu, an important city four days south west of Ch'êngtu. From Yachou Fu they are conveyed overland south through Ching-chi Hsien, Yüeh-hsi T'ing, Ningyüan Fu, and Hui-li Chou to Yünnan.

It is a fourteen days' journey from Yachou Fu to Ningyüan Fu, and from the latter city nine more days are required to reach the Yünnan frontier.

The hopes which the traveller in search of trade routes clings to with tenacity are rudely and summarily blasted by a glance at the mountainous country through which this road passes; nor is there any improvement when as a last chance he turns west from Ningyüan Fu in the desperate attempt to reach western Yünnan.

This latter route (No. 4) was described to Baron von Richthofen as the great trade highway from Tali Fu to Ch'êngtu previous to the Mahomedan rebellion. I wish he had seen it! I was told the same story, and doubtless there is some truth in it; but the vestiges of this great highway are few indeed—a yard or two of unburied pavement may be discovered occasionally on a mountain side—but the greater part of it between Ningyüan Fu and Tali Fu is a mere bridle path winding up and down mountain sides. As evidence in support of the "great highway" theory I may state that I met a Thibetan caravan between these two places.

(5). Instead, however, of striking west from Ningyüan Fu the traveller may proceed south to Huili Chou, and thence turn south west to Tali Fu. Of this route, which is described as difficult, I have no personal knowledge; but knowing the routes from Tali Fu to Yünnan Fu, and Tali Fu to Ningyüan, Fu I can easily imagine what the intermediate route is like. The journey by it occupies twenty-three days, as against twenty-one days by route (4).

Before entering Shang-kuan ("Upper Pass"), which guards the northern approach to Tali Fu, the Thibetan

road, which joins the Ch'êngtu road to Thibet at Bathang, strikes the Tali Fu road. Of this road I know nothing, and will say nothing. It is the route followed by the Thibetans who flock to the fair which is held annually outside the west gate of Tali in the third Chinese moon.

(6). *The Bhamo route by way of T'êngyüeh Chou and Yungch'ang Fu to Tali Fu.*

This journey has been so frequently described that it is probably the best known route to Yünnan. The difficulties of the road have been carefully pointed out; and those travellers who have performed the whole journey are agreed that these difficulties are a barrier to a swifter means of communication.

At present the journey between Tali Fu and Bhamo can be performed in some four-and-twenty days; and, as the result of inquiry at the former place and at Hsia-kuan, the great trade depôt of western Yünnan through which the highway passes a few miles to the south of Tali, I believe I am near the mark when I say that the total annual value of the trade between Bhamo and Tali amounts to about half a million sterling.

(7). *The Songkoi or Red River route to Southern Yünnan.*

Anyone wishing to obtain information regarding this important trade route to *Southern Yünnan* would do well to turn to the "China Review" for May and June, 1881, where he will find an interesting article, entitled "The Province of Yünnan," which contains a translation of the Trade Report for 1879 of Comte de Kergaradec, then Consul for France at Hanoi. In addition to careful statistics of the trade between Yünnan and Tonquin he will find desirable information regarding the navigation of the Songkoi. Here we are told that the total value of the trade between Yünnan and Hanoi during 1879 amounted to 3,225,000 francs, or £169,000; and that "in ordinary times thirty to forty days are occupied in the voyage from Hanoi to Lao-kai, and ten or twelve from Lao-kai to Man-hao."

If this river, as some French writers have asserted, is capable of steam navigation in its upper waters, it is

without doubt a very valuable trade route to Southern and South-eastern Yünnan. But these writers disagree as to how far it is navigable; and M. Rocher, in his work "*La Province Chinoise du Yünnan*," says "There is every reason to believe that Lao-kai, considering the propinquity of Yünnan and Tonquin, will become the extreme point of steam navigation, and the entrepôt of Yünnan." If M. Rocher had said "the entrepôt of South-eastern Yünnan," we should have been disposed to agree with him; but we cannot for a moment accept the conclusion that the trade of Western and Northern Yünnan would be affected by the opening of the Songkoi to steam navigation. Le Comte de Kergaradec sums up his Report in the following words: "In conclusion we are compelled to admit that under the most favourable circumstances, under conditions very different from those of to-day, the trade by the Red River could hardly attain a total of twenty million francs," say £800,000; but the writer of the article thinks that "if free access were obtainable *viâ* the Red River, the neighbouring provinces would also benefit, and take advantage of this outlet." I fear that those acquainted with the physical characteristics of Western China will think otherwise. But there is one point on which I wish to put this writer straight. He says in his next sentence, "Passengers from Yünnan might then reach the capital, Peking, in 30 days instead of 100 days, the time it now occupies *viâ* the Hankow route." By Yünnan I presume the provincial capital is meant, and by the "Hankow route" "the Tung-t'ing lake and Yüan River route." Whether by this route, or by the Sui Fu or Luchou routes, passengers can in point of fact reach Peking from Yünnan Fu in less than half a hundred days.

(8). *The Canton and West River route to Yünnan.*


The West River is navigable by native craft from Canton to Pêsé, a prefectural city in the west of the province of Kwangsi, whence goods are carried overland to Yünnan Fu. The journey by this route is long and tedious; but it has one advantage over the Yangtsze routes to Yünnan Fu, namely, that the overland journey from Pêsé can be performed in several days less than by the Sui Fu or Luchou routes. But so far as foreign manufac-

tures are concerned, the Yangtsze routes at present do not compete with the Canton route to Yünnan Fu; they are more concerned with the supply of northern Yünnan. When steamers run to Lao-kai or Man-hao on the Songkoi, and to Ch'ungk'ing, Luchou and Sui Fu on the Upper Yangtsze, this trade route must inevitably suffer the fate of the once important trade route from Canton through Hunan to Ssü-ch'uan, which has, as I have already stated, become insignificant since the opening of the Lower Yangtsze to steam navigation,

(9). *The route to Yünnan by way of Kueiyang Fu.*

This route is too far from water communication to be of any importance. Yünnan Fu is distant twenty-one days' journey from Kueiyang Fu, whence another seven days are required to reach Chên-yüan Fu, which is, as I have already mentioned, the highest navigable point on the Yüan River. Kueiyang is also distant thirteen days from Yung-ning Hsien on the Yung-ning River, twelve days from the Ch'ichiang River, and fifteen days from Ch'ungk'ing. The road from Kueiyang to Yünnan Fu, with the exception of the last five stages, is exceedingly mountainous and difficult, and the little trade there is consists principally of opium from Yünnan.

I have thus endeavoured briefly to point out the existing trade routes to Western China. I have not in a paper like the present entered into the details of trade, for they would fill a volume. Nor have I spoken of the attempts that have recently been made to find a trade route to South-western Yünnan. But the foreign merchant in China may rest assured that were a dozen trade routes to Western Yünnan found to-morrow they will not affect the Yangtsze routes which supply Ssü-ch'uan, Kueichou, and Northern Yünnan. On the other hand, he may be assured that the present trade, great as it is, is capable of enormous expansion, and that the first step to ensure such expansion is to open the Upper Yangtsze to steam navigation. Let not the words 'rapids' and 'gorges' dissuade him from the attempt.



ERRATA.

- Page 28, line 6 from bottom, for "75 miles" read "75 *li*."
- " 39, " 2 " top, " 克 " 克
- " 48, " 9 " " " "ragarding" " "regarding."
- " 51, Paragraph 3, for "it is 30 *li*" read "it is 60 *li*, and thence 30 *li*."
- " 61, bottom line, for "law lin-" " "in wall-."
- " 84, line 14, for "follows" read "follow."

JOURNAL
OF THE
CHINA BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY,
FOR THE YEAR 1884.

NEW SERIES, Vol. XIX, Part II.

Agents for the Sale of the Society's Publications:

SHANGHAI, HONGKONG AND YOKOHAMA :—Messrs. KELLY & WALSH,
LIMITED.

LONDON :—Messrs. TRÜBNER & Co., 57 & 59, LUDGATE HILL.

PARIS :—M. ERNEST LEROUX, RUE BONAPARTE, 28.

SHANGHAI:
Published by the SOCIETY.

1886.



CONTENTS.

	<i>Page.</i>
ARTICLE I.—Un Poète Chinois du XVIII ^e Siècle, Yüan Tseu-ts'ai, sa Vie et ses Œuvres. By CAMILLE IMBAULT-HUART, Vice-Consul of France	1
ARTICLE II.—The Sêrica of Ptolemy and its Inhabitants (<i>with Map.</i>) By T. W. KINGSMILL... ..	43

The paper entitled "The Kaaba, or Great Shrine at Mecca, as described by Chinese,—with notes on the old Arab Trade and remarks on Mahommedanism," by H. Kopsch, Esquire, which was read before the Society 24th November, 1884, may be found in the *China Review*, Vol. XIV [Year 1885], page 95.

The paper entitled "The Navigation of the Seoul River," by Capt. F. W. Schultz, which was read before the Society on the 15th December, 1884, was published in the *Shanghai Mercury* newspaper of dates 17th and 18th December, 1884.



JOURNAL
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ARTICLE I.

UN POÈTE CHINOIS DU XVIII^E SIÈCLE.

YUAN TSEU-TS'AI, SA VIE ET SES ŒUVRES.

PAR

CAMILLE IMBAULT-HUART,

Vice-Consul de France.

AVANT-PROPOS.

La poésie chinoise est un champ vaste et fertile resté jusqu'ici presque inexploité. Peu de sinologues se sont occupés de cette partie difficile de la littérature chinoise, et ceux qui l'ont fait ont surtout pris pour sujet d'étude ce que j'appellerais la poésie classique, c'est-à-dire le *Che-king* ou Livre des Odes, le poème *Li-sao* et les poésies de l'époque des T'ang. D'aucuns ont bien donné, par aventure, des traductions de chansons, romances ou morceaux populaires, mais ces fragmens et lambeaux, épars ci et là, ne peuvent permettre d'avoir une idée juste de la muse chinoise de nos jours. Jusqu'à cette heure, les savans semblent avoir regardé avec le mépris le plus profond la véritable poésie moderne.

Quiconque connaît tant soit peu l'histoire littéraire de la Chine s'explique facilement ce dédain. Du petit au grand, tout dans ce pays n'est qu'un pastiche de l'antiquité; les temps anciens constituent son âge d'or : ce qui s'est fait à l'époque de Yu le Grand, de Yaô, de Choun, de Confucius, doit se faire

encore aujourd'hui*. Ainsi raisonne et parle tout bon et patriote Chinois ; en industrie, en mécanique, en art militaire, en diplomatie, aussi bien qu'en littérature, il faut s'appliquer à imiter scrupuleusement les anciens. A ce prix seul on peut réussir. On n'écrit bien en chinois, ai-je dit ailleurs†, que si l'on se rapproche le plus possible du style antique, et celui qui, d'expressions et d'allusions cueillies à droite et à gauche dans les Canoniques, les Classiques et les meilleurs ouvrages postérieurs, arrive à faire une sorte de mosaïque dont les raccords ne sont pas perceptibles à l'œil, celui-là fait preuve d'une vaste érudition et est réputé un maître dans l'art d'écrire. De même que les prosateurs se sont toujours plu et se plaisent encore à modeler leurs productions sur les immortels écrits de Confucius et de ses disciples, de même les poètes ont fait et font aujourd'hui encore tous leurs efforts pour imiter les vers du *Che-king* et de l'époque de T'ang.

Dans le Livre des Odes, la poésie chinoise est en quelque sorte à l'état d'embryon : la Muse y est comme étouffée. On en suit le développement progressif, encore lent, épeuré, mesuré, dans les poètes plus modernes, mais c'est sous la dynastie des T'ang qu'on la voit prendre tout-à-coup son essor et s'élever à une hauteur depuis inaccessible. Sans s'astreindre, en effet, à suivre pas à pas leurs devanciers, les chefs de l'école poétique des T'ang entrèrent plus d'une fois dans la voie de l'innovation et surent principalement donner à leurs pensées un vivant d'expression et une teinte de coloris qu'on chercherait en vain ailleurs. Ils eurent le mérite et l'honneur de fixer la poésie d'une façon définitive et d'en établir à jamais les règles. Li T'ai-pô, Tou Fou, et les satellites moins brillants qui forment leurs cortège, ont eu le même sort chez les Chinois que La Fontaine, Corneille et Molière, chez nous. Ils sont devenus classiques : leurs œuvres sont restées de véritables modèles que les "Nourrissons postérieurs des Muses chinoises" n'ont pas cessé un seul instant de lire et d'étudier. Un choix de ces

* Qu'on me permette de citer en passant les paroles suivantes de Bossuet au sujet de l'Égypte ; elles s'appliquent aussi admirablement à la Chine : "Une coutume nouvelle y était un prodige : tout s'y faisait toujours de même, et l'exactitude qu'on y avait à garder les petites choses, maintenait les grandes. Aussi n'y eut-il jamais de peuple qui ait conservé plus longtemps ses usages et ses lois" (*Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle, Révolutions des Empires*, chap. III).

† Les instructions familières du Dr. Tchou Pô-lou, préface p. XIII.

poésies, *ad usum Delphini*, est religieusement mis entre les mains des écoliers pour leur apprendre à faire des vers, pour exercer leur mémoire et former leur goût. L'estime que la *gent lettrée* professe pour ces poètes a été traduite dans le dicton suivant :

Lisez les trois cents stances des T'ang :

Alors seulement vous pourrez faire des vers.

Sans aller jusqu'à prétendre d'une manière absolue que la poésie des T'ang a été à la moderne ce que la grecque fut, en Europe, à la latine, on pourrait cependant, pour mieux faire sentir les attaches qui lient l'une à l'autre, employer la spirituelle et pittoresque expression que Victor Hugo appliquait naguères à Virgile par rapport à Homère, et dire que la seconde est pour ainsi dire la *lune* de la première. Imiter la poésie du *Che-king* et des T'ang a été un devoir sacré pour tout poète chinois : que dis-je ? c'est encore celui des littérateurs de nos jours. Mais l'imitation n'est pas une : elle a des degrés ; si elle a été servile pour certains poètes sans imagination, sans talent, destinés à être emportés sans merci par la *vague des ans*, elle a été *libre* pour ceux qui ont mérité de passer à la postérité : ces derniers ne se sont pas attachés à la *lettre* des modèles et ont pris garde de produire un calque poétique. Ils n'ont voulu mettre dans leurs vers qu'un *pâle reflet* des œuvres de la grande époque.

On comprend dès lors comment les savans ont été fatalement attirés vers ces poésies célèbres, tant de fois vantées, tant de fois citées, et pourquoi ils les ont traduites en premier lieu : il fallait apprécier les modèles avant que de songer à aborder les imitateurs ; il était de toute nécessité de traduire *Homère* avant que de feuilleter *Virgile*. Quiconque désire se livrer à l'étude de la poésie chinoise doit en effet commencer par la lecture du *Che-king*, de Li T'ai-pō et de Tou Fou : autrement, on ne serait jamais sûr d'en comprendre les finesses et les allusions. La science sinologique peut donc avec raison remercier les savans d'avoir entrepris la tâche ardue de faire connaître en Europe ces œuvres poétiques : mais elle ne saurait manquer de s'étonner, à bon droit, qu'ils se soient arrêtés brusquement dans le chemin où ils avaient fait leurs premiers pas, et qu'ils aient pu penser que les poètes modernes ne méritaient pas d'être connus.

En effet si, chez nous, on admire les maîtres de la poésie latine du temps de César et d'Auguste, on n'en goûte pas moins les auteurs de la décadence ; de même en Chine, on vénère en classiques Tou Fou et Li T'ai-pō, on les prend comme modèles de

style et d'élégance, mais on ne se lasse pas toutefois de lire et de relire les nombreuses pièces dues aux pinceaux brillans de 蘇軾 *Sou Che* ou 蘇東坡 *Sou T'oung-pō*, de la dynastie des Soung (1036-1101), des empereurs K'ang-chi, Young-tcheng, Kien-loung, et de 袁子才 *Yuan Tseu-t'sai*, l'un des plus célèbres écrivains de la dynastie actuelle.

Frappé, il y a bientôt deux ans, du peu d'estime que les sinologues semblaient avoir à l'endroit de la poésie chinoise, j'entrepris d'étudier la Chine poétique dans les trois phases de son histoire, à son éclosion dans le *Che-king*, durant son épanouissement sous les T'ang et pendant son étiolement successif sous les dynasties suivantes*. Après avoir parcouru, la plume à la main, les recueils classiques de Tou Fou et de Li T'ai-pō, les collections volumineuses de Sou T'oung-pō, de K'ang-chi, de Young-tcheng et de K'ien-loung, j'en vins à attaquer les essais poétiques de l'Académie de 隨園 *Souei-yuan* (jardin de Souei) dont le chef ou le président fut ce Yuan Tseu-ts'ai que je viens de citer. Ce livre, fort prisé en Chine, où il a sa place sur les rayons d'une bibliothèque choisie, est, je crois, inconnu des sinologues : du moins je ne sache pas que l'on ait jamais extrait et traduit quoique ce soit des huit *t'aô* ou volumes dont il se compose. Le nom même de celui qui y tient la place d'honneur passe peut-être ici pour la première fois sous les yeux du lecteur : Yuan Tseu-ts'ai est bien cité dans le petit dictionnaire biographique de Mayers, mais ce savant et regretté sinologue ne lui consacra que deux lignes d'un laconisme désespérant. Les autres ouvrages sur la Chine que j'ai été à même de consulter sont tous muets à son égard. Le hasard a fait que nul n'a encore songé à sonder la mine littéraire que Yuan et ses disciples nous ont laissée, et à en exploiter les richesses au profit de la science.

La lecture rapide que je fis d'abord du 隨園三十種 *Souei-yuan san-che-tchoung* (tel est le titre de ce recueil), me parut attrayante, mais, l'ayant recommencée peu après avec plus de soin,

* "A Chinese writer in his preface to a collection of poems compares the progress of poetry in China, to the gradual growth of a tree. The celebrated *She-king* 詩經 he compares to the roots; when *Sou* and *Le* (蘇李) flourished, the buds appeared; in the time of *Kien-ngan* 建安 (cf. Mayers, *Manual*, No. 759) there were abundance of leaves, but during the dynasty Tang, many reposed under the shade of this tree and there were rich supplies of flowers and fruit," Morrison, *Grammar*, Serampore, 1815.

je la trouvais fort intéressante, non seulement par ce qu'elle m'ouvrait une percée sur la poésie et la littérature modernes, mais aussi parce qu'elle m'enseignait un chapitre curieux et jusqu'ici inédit de l'histoire littéraire de la Chine.

C'est ce chapitre que j'ai essayé d'esquisser rapidement dans les pages qui suivent, en faisant connaître pour la première fois un émule et un rival en poésie des empereurs K'ang-chi et K'ien-loung, et en signalant l'influence qu'un des plus illustres écrivains de la dynastie des Ts'ing eut sur la littérature de son temps. Au cours de cette étude succincte, j'ai tenté de tracer un crayon fidèle de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai et d'indiquer les traits les plus saillants et les plus expressifs de sa physionomie littéraire et morale* : je me réserve de m'étendre plus tard sur ses ouvrages eux-mêmes et d'en traduire de nombreux fragmens. Les poésies qui accompagnent cet article suffiront au lecteur impartial, je l'espère, pour apprécier sainement et en connaissance de cause le talent du poète, et pour reconnaître que la poésie moderne ne mérite pas l'oubli dans lequel on l'a trop longtemps laissée et qu'elle a autant de droits que celle des T'ang à passer dans nos langues européennes.

I.

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai naquit dans les dernières années du règne de l'empereur K'ang-chi, le contemporain et le rival asiatique de Louis XIV, en 1716, dans le district de 錢塘 Ts'ien-t'ang qui forme avec celui de 仁和 Jèn-hô la ville de Hang-tchéou, capitale de la province du Tche-kiang†. 袁 Yuan était son *sing*

* "On ne peut tout dire de chaque auteur ; il n'est besoin que d'en dire assez pour bien marquer le sens de sa manière, et donner au lecteur l'envie d'en savoir plus en recourant à l'original ; mais il faut, à la rigueur, lui en avoir déjà offert et servi un assez ample choix (*d'extraits*) pour que, même sans aller s'informer au delà, il en garde un souvenir propre, et attache au nom connu une idée..." Ce passage de notre grand critique eût pu être l'épilogue de ce travail.

† Les détails biographiques mis en œuvre dans ce travail sont principalement extraits de l'ouvrage intitulé 國朝先正事畧 K'oué-tch'ao-sien-tcheng-che-liô, Biographies des Hommes Célèbres de la dynastie actuelle, par 李元度 Li Yuan-tou, surnommé 次青 Ts'eu-ts'ing, de 平江 P'ing-kiang. Cet utile recueil, sorte de Bouillet chinois, est divisé en 60 livres et comprend plus de mille biographies. L'article consacré à notre poète sous le titre de 袁簡齋先生事畧 Yuan-kiên-tchai-sien-tcheng-

on nom patronymique ; 子才 Tseu-ts'ai, son *ming* ou prénom, ou plutôt son *post-nom*, puisqu'en Chine le second se place toujours avant le premier : mais lui-même prit plus tard le surnom de 簡齋 Kièn-tchai, sorte de *nom de plume* ou de *pinceau* sous lequel il fut généralement connu dans le monde littéraire. Après sa mort on lui décerna le 諱 *houei* ou *appellation* de 枚 Mei qui fut inscrite sur sa tablette ancestrale. Il est donc souvent désigné sous les noms de 袁簡齋 Yuan Kien-tchai et de 袁枚 Yuan-mei. Ses contemporains l'appelèrent 隨園先生 Souei-yuan Sièn-cheng, le Docteur (ou Maître) du jardin de Souei, à cause d'un jardin qu'il avait acheté près de Nanking, où, comme on le verra plus loin, il se retira vers le milieu de sa vie.

Les biographes chinois ne nous fournissent aucun détail sur la famille de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, ni sur les premières années de celui-ci. Heureusement que Yuan lui-même a en soin, dans ses *Notes et Réflexions** de semer quelques souvenirs précieux à ce sujet. Sa famille était loin d'être riche : sa mère était restée à Hang-tchéon avec plusieurs garçons et filles en bas âge et faisait des prodiges d'économie pour les élever, tandis que son père remplissait, dans des provinces éloignées, auprès de hauts fonctionnaires, les fonctions de secrétaire. Les appointemens du père n'étaient pas considérables et l'argent ne semble pas avoir été un visiteur constant de la maison des Yuan. "J'étais si pauvre dans ma jeunesse, a écrit Yuan Tseu-ts'ai,† que je ne pouvais pas acheter de livres quoique j'aimasse ceux-ci jusqu'à la passion. Chaque fois que je passais devant la boutique d'un libraire l'eau m'en venait à la bouche‡ : avec amertume je parcourais les livres, mais les prix en étaient trop élevés, je ne pouvais me les

che-liô est au livre XLII, classe de la littérature (苑文). La préface de l'auteur est datée de la cinquième année T'oung-tche (1867). Les ouvrages de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, et notamment le 隨園詩話 *Souei-yuan-che-houô*, collection de notes, d'opinions, de réflexions de Yuan, comprise dans le *Souei-yuan-san-che-tchoung*, m'ont fourni de nombreux renseignements. Les poésies elles-mêmes, comme on le verra, ont été souvent mises à contribution ; elles permettent en effet de connaître à fond la figure littéraire et morale de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, et nous montrent en quelques sorte à nu le caractère et l'âme du poète.

* 隨園詩話 *Souei-yuan-che-houô*, passim.

† *Souei-yuan-che-houô*, livre V.

‡ 每過書肆垂涎.

procurer. Dans mes rêves je revoyais ces ouvrages*." Toute peu fortunée qu'elle fût, sa famille, qui avait de bonne heure reconnu en lui de grandes aptitudes pour les études littéraires, ne voulut pas cependant le mettre dans une école et lui donna un habile précepteur choisi parmi les maîtres les plus distingués de 'Hang-tchéon. Le jeune Yuan profita rapidement des excellentes leçons de son professeur et, à peine arrivé à l'âge de raison, il montra un amour persévérant pour les Belles-lettres en général et un goût tout particulier pour la poésie : il avait neuf ans quand il commença à s'essayer dans cet art difficile et à faire des vers à l'imitation des anciens.

Dans une page charmante de ses *Notes*, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a raconté comment se fit jour son inclination naturelle pour la poésie† : " Lorsque j'étais jeune, dit-il, ma famille était pauvre ; je ne connaissais que les Quatre Livres et les Cinq Canoniques ; j'ignorais ce que c'était que la poésie‡. Un jour que mon maître était sorti, un de ses amis, 張自南 *Tchang Tseu-nan*, vint à la maison apporter un livre pour demander à le vendre, et laissa pour mon maître un billet ainsi conçu : " Il se trouve que j'ai grand besoin d'argent : je vous offre ce *Kou-che-chuan*, Choix d'anciennes poésies§, en quatre volumes, et je vous prie de m'avancer dessus deux étoiles d'argent (*i.e.*, deux *ts'ien*)|| ; grâce à cela, je pourrai réellement revivre, et les plus nombreuses paroles ne parviendront pas à exprimer ma reconnaissance." Ayant vu ce billet, mon oncle 章升扶 *Tchang Cheng-fou* dit à ma mère : " Il faut vite donner ce que demande ce Tchang Tseu-nan qui écrit si lamentablement pour avoir deux étoiles d'argent. Il peut laisser les poésies ou les emporter, comme il voudra." J'avais alors neuf ans ; je parcourus cet ouvrage et crus avoir

* " Lorsque je fus devenu fonctionnaire, ajoute-t-il, j'achetai dix mille volumes : mais je n'avais plus alors le temps de lire ; ainsi quand on est jeune, on a des dents solides, mais la pauvreté empêche que l'on mange (ce qu'on désire) ; lorsqu'on est vieux, on a devant soi quantité de bonnes choses, mais les dents et l'estomac ne permettent plus d'y goûter. Cela ne fait-il pas soupire ?" *Souei-guan-che-'houâ*, loco citato.

† *Souei-guan-che-'houâ*, livre VI.

‡ 不知詩爲何物.

§ 古詩選. Ce choix a été fait par 王士禎 *Onang Che-tcheng* de 濟南 *Ts'i-nan*, homme d'Etat distingué et critique judicieux (1634-1711, cf. *Mayers, Chinese reader's Manual*, p. 216). Il est divisé en deux parties : l'une comprenant les pièces écrites en vers de cinq pieds (五言), l'autre, celles en vers de sept pieds (七言).

|| 銀二星.

trouvé une vraie perle : il commençait par dix-neuf stances d'anciennes poésies et prenait fin à l'époque des T'ang. Dès lors, aussitôt que mon maître était sorti, ou lorsque j'étais en vacances à la fin de l'année, je récitais les pièces du *Kou-che-chuan* et m'efforçais de les imiter de mon mieux. C'est ainsi que je me mis à étudier la poésie."

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai passa son enfance et sa jeunesse dans l'étude des Classiques, des Canoniques et des princepeaux monumens de la littérature chinoise : sous l'habile direction de ses professeurs, il disséqua les meilleurs auteurs, se les assimila, et parvint, en suivant leurs traces, à manier le pinceau avec une dextérité peu commune. Les Belles-lettres étaient sa vocation : il ne voulait point sortir de leur domaine, il s'y prélassait avec amour. Son objectif était la *science*, et non pas, comme la plupart des jeunes chinois, la réussite aux examens universitaires et l'obtention de diplômes qui ouvrent d'ordinaire la porte du fonctionarisme et de la fortune. C'est ainsi qu'il atteignit l'âge de vingt-et-un ans sans s'être présenté encore, malgré ses talents réels, aux concours pour le baccalauréat.

A cet âge, une circonstance toute fortuite le mit en lumière et lui annonça pour ainsi dire l'avenir qui lui était réservé. Son père était alors secrétaire au prétoire de 金鉅 *Kin Koung*, gouverneur de la province du Kouang-si. Yuan alla un jour lui rendre visite : le gouverneur, à qui le jeune lettré fut présenté comme un "savant en expectative," voulut mettre celui-ci à l'épreuve et lui demanda de composer quelques vers sur un tambour de bronze placé dans son *yamen*. Yuan saisit immédiatement un pinceau et composa instantanément une pièce de vers sur ce sujet difficile et prêtant si peu à la poésie. *Kin Koung* fut émerveillé autant de la promptitude avec laquelle le fils de son secrétaire avait improvisé ces stances, que des pensées gracieuses qu'il avait su couler dans ces vers : il pensa qu'un talent si précoce devait conduire rapidement Yuan Tseu-ts'ai à une célébrité littéraire et peut-être même à de hautes dignités, et il envoya un rapport spécial à l'empereur pour lui recommander le jeune poète et le prier de permettre à celui-ci de se présenter, à côté de vieux lettrés "blanchis sous le harnois," au concours extraordinaire qui allait avoir lieu pour tous les savans de l'empire.

L'empereur K'ien-loung, alors sur le trône, venait en effet de décréter une session de l'examen spécial appelé *Pé-chiô-*

'*houng-ts'eu**, et faisait appel aux plus célèbres littérateurs de ses vastes Etats (1736). Dans la lice, devaient se trouver en présence et rivaliser d'érudition et de talent, tous les lettrés de l'empire renommés par leur ouvrages et leurs savoir et qui, soit qu'ils n'eussent pas réussi aux examens ordinaires (affaire de chance aussi bien en Chine qu'en Europe), soit qu'eux-mêmes n'eussent pas voulu les affronter, n'avaient pas encore obtenu de degrés universitaires. Cette joute devait avoir lieu durant le neuvième mois (septembre) dans la salle du palais 保和殿 *Puô-hô-tièn*, sous l'œil auguste de l'empereur même†. Plus de deux cents lettrés se présentèrent : mais, comme toujours en pareille occurrence, il y eut beaucoup d'appelés et peu d'élus, et Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, le plus jeune de tous les concurrens, dit son biographe, se trouva parmi ces derniers. La jalousie de quelque vieil examinateur, furieux de voir un si jeune candidat lutter avec les plus savans de l'empire, fut peut-être la seule cause qui l'empêcha de réussir ! Ce ne fut toujours point l'insuffisance de ses connaissances, car, deux ans après, il était reçu *Kiu-jen* ou licencié à l'examen de Péking (1738) et, l'année suivante, il devenait *tsin-che* ou docteur (1739).

En conformité des réglemens si minutieux qui régissent les examens chinois, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, classé à ce dernier concours parmi les premiers, reçut le titre de 庶吉士 *Chou-ki-che*, ou bachelier Han-lin‡. Ainsi lui furent ouvertes les portes du Han-lin-yuan ou Académie de la Forêt de Pinceaux. Le jeune docteur dut alors suivre les cours du 庶常館 *Chou-tch'ang-kouan* pour se perfectionner dans la littérature : mais il paraît qu'il n'avait aucune aptitude pour l'étude des langues ; il ne s'adonna pas en effet suffisamment à celle du Mandchou, et le peu de progrès qu'il avait fait de ce côté, le fit échouer à l'examen de sortie§. Ne pouvant dès lors collaborer aux doctes travaux des Immortels chinois, il fut réduit à accepter une place dans les rangs des fonctionnaires provinciaux : il reçut une charge de Tche-chien ou Magistrat de district dans la province du Kiang-nan.

* Voir à l'appendice une note sur cet examen.

† *Souei-yuan-che-houâ*, livre VI, et *Biographies des Hommes Célèbres*.

‡ Voir pour les détails Mayers, *The Chinese Government*, p. 25.

§ Les *Chou-ki-che* qui réussissent à l'examen de sortie passent 檢討 *Kien-t'ao*, gradué du 3^e. degré, ou 編修 *Pien-siéou*, compilateur du Han-lin-yuan (Mayers, p. 25).

II.

Le district de 溧水 *Li-choueï*, dépendant de la préfecture de Nanking, fut le premier poste qu'occupa Yuan Tseu-ts'ai : de là il fut envoyé à 江浦 *Kiang-pou*, puis à 沭陽 *Chou-yang** ressortissant également à l'ancienne capitale du sud, et enfin à Nanking même, toujours en qualité de *Tche-chien*. Dans ces divers endroits il s'acquit une grande renommée d'habile et intègre administrateur : plein de zèle, juste et équitable, compatissant aux maux des habitants, il s'efforçait toujours de se mettre en contact quotidien avec ses administrés, d'écouter patiemment leurs réclamations et de trancher leurs différends bien plus-d'après la loi naturelle que d'après les codes qui, en Chine comme ailleurs, sont quelquefois injustes. Il avait en quelque sorte deviné la maxime de Châteaubriand : "Le salut d'un peuple dépend plus encore de l'administration que des lois." Il fit disparaître des prétoires nombre d'abus existans et mit à la raison les *yá-y* ou *satellites*, cette vermine des tribunaux chinois qui ronge tout ensemble plaignans, défenseurs et témoins. Il avait accoutumé de dire que "les magistrats doivent tenir sévèrement en bride leurs esclaves et leurs satellites pour qu'il n'y ait aucun obstacle entre eux et le peuple"†. Aussi chacun avait-il libre accès auprès de lui : le premier venu pouvait venir déposer une plainte entre ses mains sans passer par des intermédiaires rapaces. Toute la journée, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai siégeait dans la grande salle d'audience de son prétoire dont les portes étaient ouvertes à tout venant : il écoutait avec soin les réclamations qu'on portait à son tribunal. Quand il ne s'agissait que d'affaires de peu d'importance ou de différends sans conséquence, Yuan jugeait immédiatement afin de ne pas perdre de temps.

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai s'appliqua surtout à réprimer les vols et les brigandages : il employa à cet effet, dit son biographe, un moyen qui réussit à souhait ; il réunit les 鄉保 *Chiang-pao* ou *Maires* des villages placés sous sa juridiction et s'enquit minutieusement des voleurs et des vauriens de la localité ; puis, pour qu'on ne le trompât point, il fit des recherches dans les archives du district et compara les noms de ceux qui lui avaient été désignés

* Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a souvent parlé de ces divers endroits dans ses poésies : voir *passim* son recueil, livres XX, XXIV, XXX, XXV, XXVI.

† 爲守令者當嚴束家奴吏役使官民無壅隔.
Biographies des Hommes Célèbres.

avec ceux qui étaient inscrits dans les registres : sûr alors de n'être pas dans l'erreur, il fit afficher les noms de ces individus à la porte du prétoire et promit à tous que, s'ils ne commettaient aucune mauvaise action pendant l'espace de trois ans, il effacerait leurs noms : "les vauriens n'osèrent plus sortir de chez eux."

L'auteur des *Biographies* rapporte plusieurs affaires que Yuan Tseu-ts'ai trancha avec autant d'intelligence que d'habileté. La première rappelle de loin le jugement de Salomon, quoique le grand roi n'eut pu régler de même la dispute de la vraie et de la fausse mère. Deux individus se disputaient la possession d'un terrain sis au delà de la rivière et de la grotte de Fang-chan (Montagne carrée) : ni l'un ni l'autre n'avaient de pièces pour prouver leurs prétentions. Ce procès durait depuis plusieurs années : on ne savait comment le terminer. Lorsque Yuan vit la montagne des pièces et documens ayant rapport à cette affaire, il dit en riant : "cela rappelle la plaine de 玉暢頓邱 Yu-tch'ang-ton-kieou qui existait entre les deux pays de 晉 Tsin et de 鄭 Tcheng et que, au dire de Tsô Kieou-ming, ces deux Etats se disputaient. Ce procès a duré déjà trop longtemps ; il a ruiné deux familles. Je vais vous le terminer." Il repoussa alors tous les documens, partagea le terrain contesté en deux parts qu'il distribua aux deux plaideurs et délivra à chacun d'eux un titre de propriété. "Ceux qui apprirent la manière dont la question avait été résolue furent transportés d'admiration."

Une autre fois, on amena à son tribunal un colporteur qui, possesseur d'un bateau, allait de rivière en rivière vendre de la toile. Un abordage venait d'avoir lieu entre le bateau de cet industriel et une canonnière de rivière : un des soldats appartenant à l'équipage de ce "navire de guerre" avait été noyé. Yuan vit immédiatement que le colporteur n'était coupable que d'une mort par imprudence, et pensa que si on poursuivait l'affaire, le pauvre homme ne saurait manquer de perdre tout ce qu'il possédait. Sous prétexte de s'assurer lui-même de la façon dont l'accident était arrivé, il se rendit sur le bord de la rivière où était amarrée la barque du colporteur : il ordonna à ce dernier de hisser sa voile, puis lui dit : "Profite du bon vent et vas-t-en !" On pense bien que l'inculpé ne se le fit pas dire deux fois. Yuan donna ensuite quelque argent pour faire enterrer le noyé.

|| Bourg dépendant du district de 嵐 Lan, préfecture de 太原 T'ai-yuan, province de Chan-si.

Ainsi finit l'instance qui eut certainement ruiné le négociant ambulant.

Un autre jour, Yuan fut saisi d'une affaire dont les conséquences eussent pu être fâcheuses pour lui s'il n'avait su la régler adroitement. Comme un vice-président de l'un des ministères, 尹會一 *Yn 'Houeï-y*, récemment nommé *Chih-tai* ou *Examineur*, se rendait à Nanking pour prendre possession de son poste, deux courriers à cheval, au verbe haut et à l'air insolent, bousculèrent son cortège et invectivèrent les gens de sa suite. Plainte fut portée devant le magistrat le plus voisin, mais les deux courriers se disant les serviteurs d'un prince du sang, le mandarin n'osa pas instruire l'affaire; Yuan, ne connaissant que son devoir, les fit arrêter incontinent et les interrogea: de leur interrogatoire il résulta qu'ils étaient porteurs d'une boîte contenant des lettres du maréchal Nien Keng au Vice-roi du Kiang-nan. Yuan ouvrit la boîte et y trouva dix lettres fort importantes et très compromettantes pour ces deux hauts fonctionnaires: il les brûla toutes, fit administrer quelques centaines de coups de bambou aux porteurs et les renvoya.

La treizième année K'ien-loung (1749), lors de la terrible famine qui ravagea le Kiang-nan, des gens de 銅井 *T'oung-kin*,* transportant du riz à 吳門 *Vou-meun*†, vinrent se plaindre qu'on leur avait volé leur cargaison. Comme la faim avait pu pousser les voleurs à commettre une telle action, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai ne voulut pas agir avec rigueur: il fit venir le chef de la bande et l'interrogea. Il découvrit ainsi que l'on n'avait nullement volé du riz aux plaignans, mais seulement empêché ceux-ci d'en vendre: le riz fut rendu aux gens de T'oung-kin et tous furent renvoyés chez eux. Avec intelligence et talent, dit son biographe, il tranchait les affaires de ce genre 其敏而能斷類此.

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a narré lui-même dans une de ses *Notes* comment ses connaissances littéraires lui permirent un jour de régler une question délicate soumise à son tribunal. "En 1745, dit-il, j'étais *tche-chien* à Nanking. Le 15 du cinquième mois (avril) il s'éleva un grand vent; le jour fut tout obscur. Une jeune fille de la ville, *Han* de son nom de famille, âgée de dix-huit ans, fut enlevée par le vent et transportée au village de T'oung-kin, à quatre-vingt-dix *li* de la ville. Les habitans de ce hameau lui demandèrent son nom, s'enquirent de sa famille

* Village à neuf lieues de Nanking.

† Un des noms littéraires de Sou-tchéou.

et, le lendemain, la reconduisirent chez elle. Or, cette jeune fille était déjà fiancée au fils du bachelier Li du quartier de l'Est. Ce Li douta que le vent ait pu transporter quelqu'un à quatre-vingt-dix *li* de distance, et soupçonna que la jeune fille avait eu quelque rendez-vous suspect. Il porta l'affaire devant le tribunal pour demander l'annulation du contrat. Sachant ce qu'il en était, je lui dis : "Jadis, un coup de vent a emporté une jeune fille à six mille *li* de distance : savez-vous cela ?" Li ne le crut pas. Je pris l'ouvrage intitulé 陵川集 *Ling-tch'ouan-tsi*, de 郝文忠 *Hô Ouén-tchoung*, de la dynastie des Yuan, et le lui montrai en disant : "Hô a été le fidèle ministre d'une dynastie : est-ce qu'il aurait voulu dire un mensonge ? La jeune fille de Vou-meun (Soutchéou), enlevée jadis par le vent, épousa un homme qui devint plus tard premier ministre. Je crains bien que votre fils n'ait pas le même bonheur que ce dernier." Li lut le passage et fut très content. Les deux familles restèrent unies comme auparavant. Le Vice-roi Yn, ayant appris cette solution, dit : "On peut dire avec raison que, pour magistrats de districts, il faut employer des lettrés*."

Le Vice-roi de Nanking, 尹文端 Yn Ouén-touan, que Yuan a cité dans cette page, connaissait les talents du savant *tche-chien* : il avait la plus grande confiance dans son habileté et son expérience et, toutes les fois qu'il se présentait quelque affaire difficile à traiter, il avait recours à ses lumières. A plusieurs reprises, le Vice-roi signala à l'empereur le zèle, l'intelligence, l'aptitude pour l'administration et le profond savoir de son subordonné.

Aimé des ses chefs, chéri des populations†, Yuan semblait destiné à parcourir une brillante carrière : sans doute il fut parvenu aux premières dignités de l'Etat, si une grave maladie, due à un travail trop assidu et trop considérable (car il menait de front les études littéraires et les obligations de sa charge), ne l'eût contraint à demander un congé et à se confiner dans sa famille pendant quelque temps. Revenu à la santé, mais resté aigri et morose, il reçut l'ordre de se rendre dans la province du Chan-si

* *Souei-yan-che-houâ*, livre IV.

† Notre poète a écrit, dans ses stances 喜老 *chi-lao*, Plaisirs du vieil âge :

十載宰官身。吏民尚懷德。

Pendant dix années je fus magistrat de district,
Mes employés et mes administrés se rappellent encore mes vertus.

pour y prendre la direction d'un district : là, malheureusement, il ne put s'entendre avec son chef direct le Vice-roi 'Huang Ning-kouei. De froissemens continuels, les deux mandarins en vinrent à des paroles acerbes : bref une brouille complète s'ensuivit. Ne voulant plus continuer à servir l'empereur dans des conditions si difficiles et si délicates, Yuan présenta une nouvelle demande de congé, que le Vice-roi, charmé de se débarrasser ainsi d'un inférieur qui le gênait et le contrecarrait souvent, appuya de toute son influence ; Yuan fut autorisé à se retirer dans sa famille ; il avait alors quarante ans.

III.

Rentré dans la vie privée, maître à sa guise de tous ses instans, il s'adonna dès lors tout entier aux Belles-lettres, et, pour n'être point distrait de ses études par les soucis de ce monde, il fut se fixer dans un jardin qu'il avait acheté aux portes de Nanking, alors qu'il était l'un des *tche-chien* de cette ancienne capitale.

Dans ses *Essais littéraires*, il a laissé quelques notes sur ce jardin, son histoire, ses environs, etc. ; j'en extrais et traduis les passages suivans*.

“ A deux *li* à l'ouest du pont de la porte septentrionale de Nanking, je trouvai le 小倉山 *siao-ts'ang-chan*, la Colline du Grenier. Se détachant de la montagne 清凉 *Ts'ing-léang*, cette hauteur formait deux pics et venait mourir au pied du pont : longue et étroite, elle faisait mille zigzags. Au centre était un étang limpide entouré de champs humides : son nom vulgaire était 乾河 *Kan-'hó* (Rivière sèche.) Le *Ts'ing-léang-chan* était jadis la résidence d'été des empereurs des T'ang méridionaux†. Du sommet de la Colline du Grenier on aperçoit tous les lieux et sites renommés de Nanking et de ses environs : au nord-est, le 雞鳴寺 *Ki-ming-sseu*, Temple du Chant du Coq ; au sud-est, le 莫愁湖 *Mô-tch'êou-'hou*, Lac sans chagrins ; au nord, le 鍾山 *Tchoung-chan*, Mont de la Cloche ; au sud le 雨花臺 *Yu-'houà-t'ài*, Terrasse des fleurs qui tombent en forme de pluie, etc., etc.

* 小倉山房文集 *Siao-ts'ang-chan-fang-ouen-tsi*, Recueil de littérature de la maison de la Colline du Grenier, livre XII, 隨園記 *Souei-yuan-ki*, Histoire du Souei-yuan.

† A l'époque des 五代 *ou-tai* ou cinq dynasties, les 南唐 *Nan T'ang* ou T'ang méridionaux ont régné de 923 à 936 de notre ère.

Là, au temps de l'empereur K'ang-chi, un certain 隋 Souei, Directeur de la Fabrique Impériale de Soieries, avait élevé un pavillon sur le pic septentrional de la Colline, avait planté autour des arbres, des arbustes, et avait circonscrit le tout d'un mur. Tous les habitans de Nanking venaient se promener et admirer la nature dans cet endroit: on l'appelait 隋園 Souei-yuan, Jardin de Souei, du nom de son propriétaire.

"Trente ans plus tard, lorsque je fus nommé Tche-chien à Nanking, ce jardin était presque entièrement détruit et le pavillon s'était transformé en un vulgaire cabaret où les charretiers et les porteurs de chaises se disputaient tout le jour. Les oiseaux ne voulaient plus résider en ce lieu; les fleurs elles-mêmes, malgré les zéphirs du printemps, se refusaient à fleurir. A cette vue j'eus le cœur serré; je pris ce jardin en pitié et demandai le prix du terrain: il était de trois cents tael. Il m'en coûta un mois de mes appointemens; je devins acquéreur du jardin que je fis incontinent entourer d'un nouveau mur. Sur les hauteurs j'élevai des pavillons; dans les bas fonds je plaçai des kiosques entourés d'eau; dans les parties resserrées je fis faire des ponts; là où l'eau coulait, je mis un bateau; puis je disposai des grottes çà et là, etc., etc. En somme tout fut fait selon la disposition naturelle du sol: d'où j'appelai ce parc 隨園 Souei-yuan, jardin de Souei*.

"Lorsque le jardin fut achevé, je me dis en soupirant:—"Si je restais fonctionnaire à Nanking, je viendrais ici une fois par mois; si je demeurais à Nanking, j'y viendrais tous les jours; or, comme rien de tout cela ne peut être, je vais donner ma démission et prendre le jardin 取園." Dans la suite, je demandai un congé pour cause de maladie, puis avec l'aide de mon frère cadet 香亭 Chiang-t'ing et de mon neveu 涓君 Mei-kiun, je transportai au Souei-yuan ma bibliothèque . . . j'échangeai

* Yuan-tseu-ts'ai ajouta le radical 辵 au caractère du nom de l'ancien propriétaire (隋) et forma ainsi un nouveau mot donc le sens est "selon, suivant, suivre." D'après lui, 隨園 signifierait donc "Jardin construit suivant la disposition des lieux." Quarante ans plus tard, Yuan découvrit, dans une inscription poétique du temps des Ming, que ce nom de 隨園 était véritablement l'ancien nom du jardin du Directeur 隋 Souei: "Chose étrange, dit-il dans le 詩話補遺 Che-houï-pou-y, Supplément à ses notes, livre I, le nom que j'avais donné au jardin était le même que celui qu'il avait autrefois.

donc ma place contre ce jardin : on peut voir par là combien celui-ci devait être beau* !

Ainsi que tous les poètes, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai aimait foncièrement la nature : il s'appliqua à embellir son jardin et à l'orner de tout ce que les beaux-arts chinois pouvaient lui offrir. Il y coulait des jours heureux, et, comme le vieillard de Virgile,

Un parterre de fleurs, quelques plantes heureuses
Qu'élevaient avec soin ses mains laborieuses,
Un jardin, un verger, docile à ses lois,
Lui donnaient le bonheur qui s'enfuit loin des rois†.

C'était là son domaine, sa patrie : rarement il sortait de ce *luogo d'incanto* ; il ne se lassait jamais de le parcourir, de l'admirer et de lui ajouter encore de nouveaux ornemens : il a dit lui-même, dans une de ses poésies‡ :

早起 灑沐後 周流於其間
隨吾足所宜 陶然十二時

Levé de bonne heure, aussitôt ma toilette finie,
Je vais là où mes pieds me portent :
Je fais le tour du jardin, je circule entre les pavillons,
Et je passe ainsi joyeusement le jour.

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai avait réalisé ce rêve du vrai lettré : — “ Le fond de sa vie était un abandon complet aux lettres, sans ambition personnelle, sans autre passion que celle d'embellir et d'épurer son intelligence§. ” Il s'attacha tellement à sa retraite

* Le *Kiang-ning-fou-tche*, Description du Département de Kiang-ning (ou Nanking) cite ce jardin au livre VIII, 名蹟 *Ming-tsi*, Ruines Célèbres : “ Au nord-est de la ville de Nanking se trouve le *Soueï-yuan*, Jardin de Yuan Kien-tchai : il était très renommé ; il en reste encore des ruines. ” — On peut voir une vue du *Soueï-yuan* dans l'ouvrage 鴻雪因緣圖記 *Houng-chuë-yin-yuan-t'ou-ki*, Les Traces de la Grue sur la neige, Mémoires illustrés de 麟慶 *Lin-k'ing*, père de 忠厚 *Tch'oung-héou*, qui fut envoyé en ambassade en France après les massacres de Tientsin, puis en Russie (conflit russo-chinois).

† Traduit par Delille.

‡ 小倉山房詩集 *Siab-t'sang-chan-fung-che-tsé*, Recueil des poésies de la Maison . . . etc. Livre VI, pièce intitulée 隨園雜興 *Soueï-yuan-tsâ-ching*.

§ Silvestre de Sacy : “ Quelle est l'âme sensible aux lettres qui n'ait pas fait ce rêve d'une vie toute plongée dans l'étude et dans la lecture ? Qui ne s'est figuré avec délices, une petite retraite bien sûre, bien modeste, où l'on n'aurait plus à s'occuper que du beau et du vrai en eux-mêmes, où l'on ne verrait plus les hommes et leurs passions, les affaires et leurs ennuis l'histoire et ses terribles agitations, qu'à travers ce rayon de pure lumière que le génie des grands écrivains a répandu sur tout ce qu'il représente. Quel

poétique que rien ne put l'en arracher. Son bonheur champêtre, ainsi que les richesses accumulées au *Souei-yuan*, lui ayant attiré la jalousie de quelque personnage hant placé, peut-être celle du Vice-roi des Deux Kiang,—un de ses amis craignit pour lui et l'engagea vivement à quitter, au moins momentanément, sa pittoresque résidence: Yuan répondit à ce conseiller par une jolie lettre où il se refusa spirituellement de suivre ses avis:—“A l'origine, dit-il, lorsque j'ai acquis le *Souei-yuan*, il ne s'y trouvait que quelques chaumières: il m'eût alors été facile de le quitter, mais depuis, j'ai passé dix ans à l'améliorer, à l'embellir. Je ne puis plus l'abandonner aisément. On lit dans le *Tchoung Young*, L'Invariable Milieu:—“Le Sage, s'il est riche et noble, agit comme un homme riche et noble.” Moi aussi, je possède le *Souei-yuan* et j'agis comme celui qui le posséderait (*i.e.*, je ne puis plus m'en détacher,)*. Au reste, ajoutait-il, le Sage n'a ni peur ni crainte, et je reste dans mon jardin†!”

Ce parc devint en quelque sorte une Académie littéraire: Yuan y réunissait souvent des amis et des confrères pour faire des joutes de poésie et boire du vin “à l'ombre des bambous.” Toute personne appartenant de près ou de loin à la littérature y était bien reçue, tout lettré qui allait à Nanking ou qui passait près de cette ville fameuse ne manquait jamais d'aller rendre visite au “Maître du *Souei-yuan*.” Les uns venaient causer littérature et poésie avec lui: les autres lui soumettaient leurs œuvres poétiques et demandaient des conseils‡. Un certain nombre de lettrés de talent, fixés à Nanking, s'étaient déclarés ses disciples; quelques bas-bleus, abandonnant l'aiguille pour le

plaisir de ne se sentir pas tirillé au milieu de ces énivrantes études, par l'affaire qui vous rappelle à la maison de ne pas porter au fond de l'âme l'idée importune de l'ennui qui vous a donné rendez-vous pour ce soir ou pour demain, et ne sera, hélas! que trop exact à l'heure (*Variétés littéraires et morales*).

* La phrase du 中庸 *Tchoung-young* est: 素富貴行乎富貴 *Sou-fou-kouei-ching-hou-fou-kouei*. Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a écrit dans le même moule: 素隨園行乎隨園 *Sou-souei-yuan-ching-hou-souei-yuan*.

† 小倉山尺牘 *Siab-ts'ang-chan-tch'e-tou*, Correspondance de la Colline du Grenier. (Collections des lettres de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, Livre II, p. 15.) Ces lettres sont toutes écrites dans un style agréable et charmant: ce sont des modèles du genre épistolaire.

‡ Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a dit lui-même, au livre VII du *Che-houé-pou-y*: 四方之士送詩求批 les lettrés des quatre points cardinaux soumettaient leurs vers à mon approbation.

pinceau, avaient été admis au cénacle*. Plusieurs parens de Yuan y avaient leur place naturellement marquée. Sa famille était poétique : ses trois sœurs faisaient des vers† et deux de ses neveux, Ouang Lan-fou et Meï-kiun, versifiaient agréablement‡.

De temps en temps on se réunissait au Souei-yuan pour lire des vers, pour discuter sur le style et sur le goût, enfin pour goûter en commun, comme parle Pellisson dans *l'Histoire de l'Académie*, "les plaisirs de la société des esprits et de la vie raisonnable." La journée se passait en causeries, en tournois poétiques ; à la nuit tombante, une table chargée des mets les plus délicats réconciliait vainqueurs et vaincus, et, après le dîner, les convives se promenaient dans le jardin éclairé à *Giorno*, à la lueur de mille lanternes multicolores. Cette réunion de littérateurs, hommes et femmes de lettres, rappelle fort, tout ensemble, et les commencemens de notre Académie Française, et le *Collegium poetarum* cité par Valère Maxime, qui était en existence à Rome vers l'époque de Sylla et dans lequel les poètes du temps se lisaient leurs vers et en faisaient mutuellement l'examen critique§. Comme le silencieux Conrart||. Yuan Tseu-ts'ai prêtait sa maison à ces assemblées pacifiques mais était loin d'observer la même prudence, car, président de fait et de droit, il prenait part active à toutes les discussions littéraires, passait sentence sur tel ou tel point en litige et discourait agréablement sur la littérature en général et la poésie en particulier.

* Leurs œuvres, sans doute retouchées par le Maitre, font partie de la collection *Souei-yuan-san-che-tchoung*.

† Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a maintes fois parlé de ses sœurs dans ses vers, ses lettres et ses notes : 能詩, elles pouvaient versifier, a-t-il dit souvent (Voir entr'autres, *Che-houd*, livre X).

‡ Dans le *Souei-yuan-che-houd*, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a laissé quelques lignes sur 汪蘭圃, Ouang Lan-fou, surnommé 庭萱 *T'ing-y* : il a même cité plusieurs vers dûs à son pinceau. (Livre X) "Mais, dit-il, la pauvreté l'empêcha de donner la mesure de son talent 爲貧所累未盡其才."

—Le second, 陸建 Lou-kien, surnommé 涓君 *Mei-kiun*, est auteur d'un grand nombre de poésies qui ont été réunies sous le titre de 涓君詩集 *Mei-kiun-che-tsi*. Recueil des poésies de Mei-kiun, et admises dans le *Souei-yuan-san-che-tchoung*. On lit en tête la biographie de l'auteur écrite par Yuan Tseu-ts'ai lui-même.

§ *Facta et Dicta Memorabilia*, III, VII, 2.

|| Valentin Conrart (1603-1675) réunissait chez lui une société de gens de lettres ; ce fut l'origine de l'Académie Française. On sait le vers sarcastique et peut-être trop mordant de Boileau :

. Imitant de Conrart le silence prudent.

Notre poète dépensa ainsi la seconde partie de sa vie au milieu d'occupations littéraires, de discussions, de critiques et de causeries ; la vieillesse même, qui fut clémente et douce pour lui, ne lui fit pas tomber le pinceau des mains : jusqu'à son dernier jour les Muses lui sourirent. Parfois, sans doute, il tenta de les fuir, et les premières atteintes de l'âge lui firent dire : "la poésie est comme la santé ; quand l'homme devient vieux, sa santé est ruinée 詩者人之精神也人老則精神衰." et

鶯老莫調舌

人老莫作詩

Lorsque le loriot devient vieux, il ne remue plus la langue (ne chante plus) ;

Quand l'homme vieillit, il ne fait plus de vers*.

Mais un poète ne peut renoncer à ses *premières amours* : une fois qu'on a sacrifié aux Muses, il est impossible de leur être infidèle. Voltaire, lui aussi, déclarait à quarante-trois ans qu'il ne voulait plus faire de vers et qu'on peut "être pape et empereur dans la plus extrême vieillesse, mais non pas poète," et il annonçait qu'il allait "donner son automne et son hiver à des choses plus faciles†." Il ne se tint pas parole, comme l'on sait, puisque, malade et octogénaire, il versifiait encore. Yuan Tseu-ts'ai fit de même : après avoir juré de renoncer aux Muses il se laissa de nouveau séduire par leurs attraits. On peut toutefois dire, à sa louange, que l'âge n'influa guère sur son talent : la meilleure preuve, c'est qu'il écrivit la jolie pièce 喜老 *Chi-lao*, les Plaisirs du vieil âge, lorsqu'il était presque aux portes du tombeau, et ces stances ne sont certes pas les moins bonnes de celles qui composent son œuvre poétique.

Entouré de l'affection des siens, de l'estime et de l'admiration des ses contemporains‡, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai vécut jusqu'à l'âge de quatre-vingt-un ans, ou, comme les chinois comptent, de quatre-vingt-deux ans, et mourut dans le courant du onzième mois de la deuxième année Kia-king (18 décembre 1797 à 17 janvier 1798).

* *Souei-yuan-che-houa*, livre XIV.

† *Correspondance de Voltaire*.

‡ On peut en voir ainsi dire la mesure dans les stances qui lui furent adressées à l'occasion du 80^e. anniversaire de sa naissance (八十壽) par les plus hauts fonctionnaires et les plus célèbres lettrés de l'empire : treize cents pièces de poésies lui furent alors offertes. Un millier environ a trouvé place dans le *Souei-yuan-san-che-tchoung*.

IV.

“Yuan Tseu-ts'ai, nous dit son biographe chinois, était grand de sa personne ; il n'avait qu'un seul défaut, il n'agissait qu'à sa guise et n'observait aucune règle. Toute sa vie, il mit en pratique les cinq vertus cardinales, les cinq relations sociales et les devoirs à l'égard des parens : il traita toujours avec la plus grande pitié filiale sa mère qui vécut jusqu'à l'âge de quatre-vingt-quatorze ans*. Il se montra toujours bon pour ses sœurs dont trois pouvaient aussi faire des vers. Lorsque sa sœur aînée devint veuve, il la fit venir auprès de lui et la garda jusqu'à sa mort qui eut lieu à l'âge de quatre-vingt-dix ans†.

“Il pratiqua constamment les devoirs de l'amitié : un de ses amis peu fortuné, qui lui avait emprunté cinq mille taels, étant venu à mourir, Yuan lui fit faire des funérailles et brûla la reconnaissance de la dette ; il fit plus encore : il prit sous sa protection le fils de son ami resté orphelin. Pendant trente années, il alla régulièrement faire les sacrifices usuels sur la tombe d'un autre de ses amis.”

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai n'avait pas qu'un seul défaut, comme le dit si charitablement son biographe : il en avait plusieurs, et même de grands. “Constamment, il était amoureux des femmes et du vin.” Il tournait un peu au genre anacréontique. Décrivant son jardin en vers élégans et gracieux, il a dit au sujet de ses kiosques et de ses pavillons :—

各放硯一具

各安筆數枝

Dans chacun j'ai placé un encrier,

Dans chacun j'ai déposé quelques pinceaux . . . †

Il eut pu ajouter avec raison, qu'à côté de ces engins littéraires se trouvaient invariablement disposés plusieurs tasses et un vase à vin. Au reste, il semble que souvent les grands poètes ont aimé chercher des inspirations au fond de la “dive bouteille.” Ennius avait fort affectionné le vin ; Cratinus avait prétendu que

* Il a dit lui-même :

養母三十年

晨昏常侍側

Pendant trente ans j'ai entouré de soins ma mère :

Matin et soir, j'étais toujours à ses côtés, attendant ses ordres.

† 老姊相依住

Ma vieille sœur aînée habite avec moi.

‡ 隨園雜興, Sur le jardin de Souei, *Recueil*, livre VI.

“ sans le vin on ne pouvait rien faire de bon en poésie.” Enfin Bacchus lui-même avait admis les poètes dans son cortège, au milieu des satyres et des faunes. Notre poète, pour s'excuser, pouvait d'ailleurs citer en Chine même d'illustres exemples : entr'autres celui de Li T'ai-pô, l'un des chefs de la Pléiade des T'ang : ce dernier avait des habitudes toutes bacchiques et un vase de 玫瑰露 *Mei-kouëi-lou*, Rosée de la rose, ou de 紹興酒 *Chao-ching-tsiéou*, vin de Chao-ching, était une sorte d'Hippocrène qu'il se plaisait à voir jaillir sous ses pas.* On peut donc dire que la plupart des “Nourrissons des Muses” ont sacrifié au vin et que bien des pièces que nous admirons aujourd'hui ont été écrites par un pinceau légèrement vacillant entre les doigts allourdis du poète.

Yuan Tsen-t'ai fut presque universel : tour à tour philosophe, critique, historien, biographe, poète, nouvelliste, il mériterait en outre d'être appelé le *Brillat-Savarin* chinois, puisqu'il a rédigé un *Manuel de Cuisine et de Physiologie du goût* qui n'est pas la partie la moins curieuse de ses œuvres. Mais, de l'aven même des lettrés chinois, ce fut dans le genre poétique qu'il réussit le mieux et qu'il se distingua le plus. “La poésie, dit son biographe, n'avait plus de difficultés ni de secrets pour lui ; il atteignit en ce genre une hauteur à laquelle personne n'était encore parvenu. Aussi nul, depuis les plus hauts fonctionnaires jusqu'aux commerçans et aux colporteurs, ne peut se lasser d'estimer et d'admirer la collection de ses poésies. Sa renommée se répandit même au delà de mers, et des gens des Iles Liéou-

* Ho Tche-tchang, un autre Mécène, introduisit Li T'ai-pô chez l'empereur Chuan-tsoung des T'ang : “j'ai dans ma maison, dit-il à ce prince, une des merveilles de votre règne ; c'est un poète, tel peut-être qu'il n'en a point encore paru de semblable ; il réunit toutes les parties qui font le grand homme en ce genre. Je n'ai osé en parler plus tôt à Votre Majesté, à cause d'un défaut dont il paraît difficile qu'il se corrige ; il aime le vin et en boit quelquefois avec excès ; mais que ses poésies sont belles ! jugez-en vous-même, Seigneur,” continua-t-il, en lui mettant entre les mains quelques vers de Li-pô.—L'empereur lut ces vers et en fut charmé. “Amenez-moi, dit-il, ce Li-pô, je veux le voir, je sais condescendre aux faiblesses de l'humanité ; je ferai tous mes efforts pour le corriger de son vice, qu'il vienne !” Ho Tche-tchang fit part à son ami de l'ordre qui l'appelaient auprès de la personne du souverain, et le conduisit à la Cour : “Je veux vous avoir auprès de moi, lui dit l'empereur en le voyant, mais à une condition, c'est que vous ne vous enivrez point.”—“La condition est un peu dure, répondit Li-pô, je sens que je tromperais Votre Majesté si je lui promettais de la tenir ; tout ce que je puis promettre, c'est de ne jamais me présenter devant elle quand j'aurai un peu trop bu.” *Mémoires concernant les Chinois*, Portrait de Li T'ai-pô par le P. Amiot, Tome V., pp. 397-398.)

kiéou vinrent à Nanking pour acheter ce recueil* . . . Quand Aô Fong-an, comte de Siang-kin, trouva la mort dans le Tibet, Yuan fit son éloge funèbre et termina par ces paroles :—

**男兒欲報君恩重
死到沙場是善終**

“Celui-là a eu une belle mort, qui, pour reconnaître les bienfaits dont son souverain l'avait gratifié, est allé périr sur un champ de bataille !”

Le père d'Aô Fong-an, Fou Heng, qui lut cet éloge, le vanta beaucoup et dit : “Je ne sais qui est ce Yuan, mais comme il a du talent pour avoir fait une telle pièce !”

La quintessence de l'admiration des lettrés chinois pour l'œuvre de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai se trouve pour ainsi dire renfermée dans les lignes suivantes de son biographe : “De tous ceux qui, depuis plus d'un siècle, ont pris plaisir à parcourir les montagnes et les forêts, et ont joui d'une renommée dans les Belles-lettres, nul n'a jamais atteint à sa hauteur†.”

Malgré qu'on l'eut, en quelque façon, élevé sur un piédestal de son vivant même, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai n'en était point devenu orgueilleux, ni infatué de lui-même‡. Il avait peu de confiance

* On raconte la même chose des poésies de Po Kiu-y, ou Po Lo-t'ienn des T'ang :—“Les étrangers qui venaient alors faire leur commerce à la Chine n'étaient pas moins empressés que les nationaux à en faire l'acquisition ; ils les échangeaient, avec une satisfaction peu commune, contre les plus précieuses de leur marchandise. On assure en particulier que ceux d'un royaume qui portaient en ce temps-là le nom de *Ki-lin-koue* au delà des frontières de méridionales du Yun-nan, après s'être chargés des plus belles étoffes de soie et des meilleurs thés du Royaume du milieu, croyaient cependant s'en retourner presque à vuide, quand ils n'emportaient pas avec eux, dans leur patrie, quelques lambeaux des ouvrages de Po Kiu-y (*Mémoires concernant les* . . . de Po Kiu-y, par le P. Amiot, Tome V, pp 426-427.)

† 百餘年來極山林之樂享文章之名蓋未有及先生者也 *Biographies des Hommes célèbres.*

‡ On voulut lui faire dire un jour qu'il était le premier poète de son temps ; il s'y refusa spirituellement : “Quelqu'un m'ayant demandé qui, sous la dynastie actuelle, occupait la première place en poésie, je détournai la question et demandai à mon tour quelle est celle des trois cents pièces du Che-king qu'on peut considérer comme la première : cet homme ne put me répondre. Je le savais bien ; je dis alors : Les poésies sont comme les fleurs qui naissent naturellement : au printemps, c'est l'*épidendrum* ; à l'automne, c'est la *Chrysanthème*. Chacune a son temps marqué pour briller. On ne saurait admettre qu'on estime les unes et méprise les autres. La poésie qui est euphonique, qui est faite suivant les règles, qui peut émouvoir le cœur et plaire aux yeux, peut être appelée de la belle poésie. Il est impossible de dire quelle est la première ni quelle est la seconde. Li

en soi. Jamais il ne croyait avoir fait quelque chose de bien. Maintes fois il remettait son œuvre sur le *métier* pour le *polir* à nouveau. Il n'agissait point comme certains hommes de génie qui, croyant toujours bien faire, produisent à toute vapeur des volumes de tous formats, productions hâtives que le public accueille avec faveur seulement parcequ'elles sont signées d'un nom illustre. Plusieurs personnes ayant réuni quelques uns de ses jugemens et morceaux poétiques, les firent imprimer et répandre partout: Yuan leur dit que "cela ne valait pas grand chose et qu'il ne fallait pas agir ainsi." Néanmoins, il savait lui-même fort bien la valeur de son talent et il était loin de s'affubler d'une rougissante modestie: il a dit en effet—un peu pompeusement peut-être—dans une de ses poésies :

Sous les trois derniers empereurs* qui peut m'être comparé en littérature† !

Yuan Tseu-ts'āi était un lettré dans toute l'acception du mot; il mettait sans cesse en pratique cette parole de Confucius :

(t'ai-pō), Tou (Fou), Han (Yu), Pō (King), sous les T'ang; Oō (Yang-sièou), Sou (T'oung-pō), Lou (Kièou-yuan), Fan (T'sou-yu), sous les Soung, sont regardés, comme de grands poètes (大家). Si l'on voulait absolument élever un seul homme pour dominer toute une dynastie, c'est comme si on faisait de la pivoine la reine des fleurs : il ne faut pas oublier que l'épidendrum a aussi un parfum royal. On ne peut donc dire quelle est la première des plantes : à plus forte raison ne peut-on le faire pour les poésies." (*Souei-yuan-che-houa*, livre III).

* Il écrivait ceci sous Kia-king, ayant vu les règnes de K'ang-chi, de Young-tcheng et de K'ien-loung

† Au reste, les poètes ne sont généralement pas modestes : c'est le moindre de leurs défauts. La princesse de Conti disait un jour à Malherbe : "Je veux vous montrer les plus beaux vers du monde, que vous n'avez point vus.—Pardonnez-moi, Madame, répondit le poète, je les ai vus ; car, s'ils sont les plus beaux du monde, il faut nécessairement que ce soit moi qui les aie faits."—Le même Malherbe disait en vers :

Apollon à portes ouvertes,
Laisse indifféremment cueillir
Ces belles feuilles toujours vertes
Qui gardent les noms de vieillir :
Mais l'art d'en faire des couronnes
N'est su que de peu de personnes ;
Et trois ou quatre seulement,
Au nombre desquels on me range,
Peuvent donner une louange
Qui demeure éternellement.

et ailleurs :—

Les puissantes faveurs dont Parnasse m'honore ;
Non loin de mon berceau commencèrent leur cours ;
Je les possédai jeune, et les possède encore
Au déclin de mes jours.

學如不及猶恐失之. Etudiez toujours comme si vous n'étiez pas arrivé (à la science); Craignez de plus de perdre ce que vous savez*. “Etudiez, disait-il, et vous saurez que vous ne savez pas assez: il est évident que ceux qui croient assez savoir sont des gens qui n'étudient pas. Il n'est pas étonnant alors qu'ils se croient supérieurs aux autres†.” Il avait pour les Belles-lettres un amour solide, et j'ajouterai, désintéressé: s'instruire était son but. Il travaillait pour la gloire et n'admettait pas qu'un sordide gain put être l'objet d'un écrivain. Souvent il s'élevait contre la tendance de ses contemporains à se faire un marche-pied de la littérature pour parvenir aux honneurs et à la fortune: de nos jours, s'écriait-il‡, on ne prend de leçon d'un maître que dans le dessein unique de réussir aux examens 爲科第起見§; puis, quand on a réussi, on est comme le pêcheur qui oublie le filet après avoir pris le poisson 科第既得而得魚忘筌||.”

Le meilleur conseil qu'il croyait pouvoir donner à ceux qui veulent faire des vers était d'étudier les anciens: “il n'y a personne, disait-il, qui puisse faire des vers sans avoir étudié les anciens¶” et il recommandait la lecture assidue et intelligente des œuvres de quatre grands poètes: Li T'ai-pô, Tou Fou, Han Yu, de la pléiade des T'ang, et de Sou T'oung-pô, de la dynastie des Soung**: il les citait à tout propos comme des modèles. Cependant, il ne voulait pas qu'on se bornât à les imiter servilement: il désirait qu'on eût en soi, comme parle Montaigne, une “condition aucunement singeresse et imitatrice,” une condition intelligente et judicieuse: “Ceux qui ont étudié avec succès doivent être comme les pêcheurs qui après avoir pris le poisson, oublient le filet dont ils se sont servis††” c'est-à-dire qu'une fois qu'on

* Loun-yu, Morceaux de Controverse, chap. VIII, §17. Edition Zottoli, *Caput quantum, Pars posterior*, §17, p. 267.

† Souei-yuan-che-'houa, livre I.

‡ Che-'houa-pou-y, livre VIII.

§ C'est malheureusement ce qui a lieu à l'heure actuelle: l'*auri sacra fames* est l'unique propulseur des jeunes lettrés, aussi les vrais savans deviennent-ils de plus en plus rares.

|| Allusion à un passage du 南華經 *Nan-'houa-king* de Tchouang-tseu: livre VII. Voir mes *Instructions Familiales*, p. 73.

¶ Souei-yuan-che-'houa, livre II.

** Souei-yuan-che-'houa, livre VII.

†† Souei-yuan-che-'houa, livre II. Cette comparaison est familière à notre poète.

s'est nourri des anciens, il faut les écarter de soi, et n'employer leurs expressions que pour émettre de nouvelles idées, sans s'astreindre à les calquer pas à pas*.

V.

En général, les poètes chinois semblent, comme notre bon La Fontaine, "avoir peur des longs ouvrages": A quelques exceptions près, leurs œuvres sont de peu d'étendue. Les grands sujets et les morceaux de longue haleine ne sont pas du tout leur fait: ils paraissent s'en écarter avec une sorte de crainte mêlée de respect. Yuan Tseu-t'sai n'a donc produit que des petites pièces, des miniatures poétiques: mais toutes sont finement ciselées et valent certes mieux que bien des longs poèmes. Doné d'une âme tendre et d'une imagination émue, mais aussi d'un scepticisme endiablé, il a su mettre dans ses vers de jolis traits de sentiment, de gracieuses images, une vivacité et une vérité de description qui charment et qui enchantent. Son vers facile coudoie de très près la prose: pas de recherche, pas d'affectation, il semble parler en vers. Le sujet n'y est pas celé sous un amas de fleurs et d'épines: on dirait que le précepte de Pascal: "Il faut se renfermer le plus possible dans le simple naturel" a toujours été la devise de notre poète: il n'a nullement la démangeaison de briller, il ne se charge pas de détails inutiles, ni de tournures lourdes et obscures: sans doute il fait souvent appel aux *tien-kou*, aux allusions littéraires et historiques, aux figures des anciens temps: ce n'est pas toutefois, comme la plupart des poètes de nos jours, pour faire parade d'une vaine érudition: il s'assimile ces expressions anciennes, les fait entrer dans ses vers sans nulle violence, et

Tâche de rendre sien cet air d'antiquité†.

* André de Chénier, ardent disciple des anciens, a dit dans une pièce dont je ne puis malheureusement citer que des fragmens:—

Je lui montrerai l'art, ignoré du vulgaire,
De séparer aux yeux, en suivant leur lien,
Tous ces métaux unis dont j'ai formé le mien
Tantôt chez un auteur j'adopte une pensée,
Mais qui revêt, chez moi, souvent entrelacée,
Mes images, mon tour, jeune et frais ornement;
Tantôt je ne retiens que les mots seulement:
J'en détourne le sens, et l'art sait les contraindre
Vers des objets nouveaux qu'ils s'étonnent de peindre.

† La Fontaine, *le Culte des Anciens*, à Mgr. l'Evêque de Soissons.

Sans faire un inventaire minutieux des éléments et ornements poétiques auxquels notre poète a eu recours dans ses vers, je crois cependant utile et intéressant d'en signaler ici les principaux : les sources les plus fécondes ont été pour lui l'histoire, la légende, la mythologie, la théologie, la géographie et l'astronomie.

Chez les Chinois, l'histoire ancienne et la légende ont été deux sœurs jumelles : la seconde est presque inséparable de la première. Yuan Tseu-ts'ai a donc puisé dans l'une comme dans l'autre : dans ses vers, l'historique Yu, le Grand Yu, de la dynastie des Chia, marche à côté du légendaire Fou-chi, le fondateur de la monarchie. Souvent les faits historiques ne sont indiqués que par un mot, par une expression : c'est à la sagacité, ou plutôt à l'érudition du lecteur, à comprendre l'allusion, à la développer et à en découvrir toutes les finesses. Tout le corps des Annales a été mis à contribution par le poète : mais il semble toutefois que celui-ci ait eu une prédilection marquée pour le *Che-ki*, ou *Mémoires historiques* de l'historien Sseu-ma Ts'ien. Le style concis à la Tacite de cet ouvrage, les pensées hautes ou nobles qui y sont semées, un air tout ensemble simple et grand qu'on y voit à chaque page devaient attirer un esprit comme celui de Yuan. Il faut avoir lu, étudié le *Che-ki* et ses commentaires pour bien saisir le sens de la plupart des poésies de notre auteur. Je ne citerai que quelques vers pour montrer l'emploi de ces ornemens poétiques : ils sont extraits de la pièce intitulée 秦始皇陵 Mausolée de Ts'in Che-houang*, morceau excessivement difficile qui est une sorte de résumé des principaux événemens du règne de cet empereur et que l'on ne peut entendre sans l'intelligence des *Mémoires historiques*† :

祖龍邯鄲兒
奇貨居大賈
鳶目而豺聲
橫絕萬萬古
既滅周家八百年
更掃三皇五帝如灰土

長城一帶中華牆
金人閃爍青銅光
高登泰岱山
大呼海船來
童男童女三千人
尋花採藥金銀臺

* *Recueil des Poésies*, livre VIII.

† Il est écrit dans le style élevé appelé 古風 *kou-foung*, en vers inégaux de cinq, sept et neuf pieds : ce style exige des expressions pompeuses, de profondes pensées, une recherche excessive et, par suite, il est hérissé de mille difficultés.

Le Dragon Ancêtre⁽¹⁾, natif de Han-tan⁽²⁾,
 Issu d'une Marchandise rare qui attendait un acheteur⁽³⁾,
 Avait les yeux du vautour et la voix du loup :
 Sa férocité n'a pas eu d'égale dans toute l'antiquité.
 Après avoir éteint l'empire gouverné par la Maison des Tchéon
 depuis huit cents ans⁽⁴⁾,
 Il a de plus balayé, comme de la cendre, les trois
 Empereurs et les cinq Souverains⁽⁵⁾
 Sa ceinture de la Grande Muraille était le mur de la Chine⁽⁶⁾
 Les statues d'or brillaient d'un vif éclat et le bronze reluisait⁽⁷⁾
 ... Il gravit les sommets des monts T'ai et Tai⁽⁸⁾,
 Et à grands cris appela des navires afin de transporter sur mer
 Trois mille jeunes gens et jeunes filles,
 Pour aller chercher des fleurs et cueillir des plantes médicinales
 sur les terrasses d'or et d'argent⁽⁹⁾.

Commentaire :—(1) Epithète que le poète a tirée du *Che-ki*, livre VI : "Lorsque Ts'in Che-houang passa sur la route de 平舒 *P'ing-shou*, il y eut un homme qui, une tablette de jade à la main, se présenta devant son cortège et dit : "cette année le Dragon Ancêtre mourra 今年祖龍死 !" En disant ces mots, il disparut et laissa la tablette comme trace de son passage ; par ces paroles il voulait dire que Che-houang-ti, mourrait dans l'année (Comment. du *Che-ki*.) D'après les gloses ce serait le 江神 *Kiang-shen* Génie du fleuve (Yang-tse) qui aurait ainsi apparu sous une forme humaine pour rendre à l'empereur la tablette de jade que celui-ci avait perdue, la 28^e. année de son règne, en traversant le Yang-tse.

(2)—Che-houang-ti naquit à Han-tan, l'actuelle 彰德 *Tchang-tô* prov. du Ho-nan (Playfair, *The cities and towns of China*, No. 258) : "莊襄王 *Tchouang Siang-ouang*, se trouvant comme ôtage dans le pays de Tchaô, vit la concubine de Lu Pou-oueï : elle lui plut, il l'épousa. Il eut pour 秦始皇 *Ching-chen* qui naquit à Han-tan dans le premier mois de la 1^{re} année du règne de Tchaô Ouang des Ts'in (*Che-ki*, livre VI, 秦始皇本紀.) Cette femme était connue sous le nom de 邯鄲夫人 *Han-tan-fou-jen*, la Dame de Han-tan ; elle était d'une bonne famille de cette ville ; elle excellait à chanter et à danser (Of. la biographie de Lu Pou-oueï dans le *Che-ki*, livre LXXXVI). Voir également Mayers, à tous ces noms, et Charles Piton, *Lii Puh-wei, or from Merchant to Chancellor*, dans le *China Review*, 1885.

(3)—Cette expression "奇貨 *Ki-houo*, marchandise rare, qui attendait un 大賈 *tâ-kou*, grand marchand," est une allusion à un épisode de la biographie de Lu Pou-oueï (*Che-ki*) : ôtage dans le pays de Tchaô, comme je l'ai dit dans la note précédente, Y Jen ou Tchaô-siang-ouang fut rencontré par un riche marchand, nommé Lu Pou-oueï qui, reconnaissant en lui de grandes qualités, résolut de s'attacher à sa fortune : "Voici, dit-il, une marchandise qui mérite d'être gardée en magasin 此奇貨可居" (pour les détails voir Mayers, No. 228, p. 73).

—L'expression 大賈 *tâ-kou* se trouve dans la première phrase de la Biographie de Lu Pou-oueï par Sseu-mâ Ts'ien : "Lu Pou-oueï était un grand marchand de Yang-yô."

(4)—La dynastie des Tchén a régné de 1122 à 221 av. J.C. époque à laquelle le prétendu fils de Tchaô-siang-ouang, le prince Tcheng, se déclara empereur sous le nom de Che-houang-ti, et mit fin à la féodalité chinoise.

(5).—Allusion à l'incendie des livres qu'alluma Che-houang-ti (Voir *Che-ki*, livre IV ; Mayers, *sub nomine* ; Pauthier, *Chine*, p. 325, etc.) Le mot du tyran décrétant l'autodafé de la littérature chinoise, tel qu'il nous a été conservé par Sseu-mâ Ts'ien, est des plus énergiques et mérite d'être cité : “ puis-je j'ai réuni le monde (天下 i.e. tout l'empire) sous ma main, Che-houang-ti, les livres sont inutiles 書不中用, détruisez-les tous ! 盡去之 (*Che-ki*, livre VI).—Les San-houang, Trois Empereurs, sont Fou-chi, Chen-noung et Houang-ti (cf. Mayers, p. 297, No. 24). Les Ou-ti, cinq souverains, sont T'ai-haô, Yen-ti, Houang-ti, Chaô-haô, Tch'ouan-chin (cf. Mayers, p. 319. No. 168.)

(6)—On sait que ce fut Che-houang-ti qui conçut le projet de construire le 萬里長城 *Ouan-li-tch'ang tch'eng*, la Grande Muraille, pour mettre ses Etats à l'abri des incursions des Tartares : il mourut du reste sans l'avoir achevée.

(7).—Allusion à douze statues que l'empereur fit faire : “ Che-houang-ti donna l'ordre de réunir toutes les armes de l'empire : il les amassa à Chien-yang, sa ville capitale, puis il les fit fondre et faire une cloche et douze hommes d'or qui pesaient chacun mille 石 *tan*. Il fit placer ces statues au milieu de son palais.” Tel est le texte même du *Che-ki*, livre VI ; les commentaires nous fournissent les détails suivants : La vingtième année de règne de Che-houang-ti, vinrent à la cour douze hommes de cinq toises de haut, ayant des pieds de six pieds de long, habillés à la manière des barbares. L'empereur voulut conserver et transmettre leur image à la postérité. En conséquence il mit à exécution un projet qu'il méditait depuis longtemps : craignant, comme tout despote, que ses peuples ne se révoltassent contre son autorité, il ordonna que quiconque de ses sujets aurait des armes serait tenu de les livrer. Toutes ces armes furent accumulées dans l'arsenal de Chien-yang et fondues. Il paraît qu'à cette époque la plupart des engins de guerre étaient en cuivre : les statues furent sans doute faites avec ce cuivre et n'étaient donc pas en or. Un livre rapporte qu'elles pesaient 240,000 斤 *kin* ou livres chinoises l'une. Elles existaient encore à l'époque des Han et s'élevaient à la porte du palais de la Grande Joie (長樂宮). Le 魏志 *Ouei-tche* nous apprend ce qu'il advint de ces œuvres d'art (P'ien-tchei 紀 帝卓 *Toung Tchô*) : “ l'usurpateur *Toung Tchô* (sur le 魏志 紀 帝卓 No. 687) en brisa dix avec sa massue, ainsi que la cloche (鍾鐸), pour en faire de petites sapèques.” Les deux autres auraient été détruites plus tard par Fou-kien, lorsque ce rebelle entra en vainqueur à Tch'ang-an, la capitale d'alors (cf. Mayers, No. 141).

(8)—De ces deux hauteurs le T'ai-chan est la plus célèbre, elle est située à cinq li au nord de T'ai-an-fou, province du Chan-toung. C'est l'orientale des Ou-yô ou cinq montagnes sacrées.

(9)—Le *Che-ki*, livre VI, mentionne un certain 徐市 *Siu Che* qui adressa à l'empereur un mémoire dans lequel il disait “ qu'il y avait

dans la mer trois montagnes (îles) surnaturelles (三神山) appelées 蓬萊 P'oung-lai, 方丈 Fang-tchung et 瀛洲 Yng-tchéou, habitées par des génies, "il demandait en conséquence à aller à leur recherche avec des jeunes gens et des jeunes filles (童男女.) L'empereur accéda à cette demande et envoya l'explorateur, accompagné de milliers de jeunes compagnons, à la recherche des génies. 發童男女數千人入海求僊人" (Che-ki loco citato.) Il faut sans doute voir là une tentative de colonisation d'un pays jusqu'alors peu connu, peut-être même de quelque îles du Japon (cf. Mayers, No. 647.)

Yuan Tseu-ts'ai n'a pas seulement emprunté des idées ou des expressions à la théologie, il lui a de plus décoché des traits mordants et satiriques qui l'eussent impitoyablement fait chasser par Platon de la République idéale de ce philosophe. Cependant, sans imiter Socrate qui combattait la religion même de l'Etat, renversait le culte héréditaire et paternel, il semblait plutôt suivre Aristophane et s'en prenait à la théologie publique, à la religion populaire : pour lui, modèle du lettré, la doctrine de Confucius était chose sacrée, mais la religion du *profanum vulgus*, le bouddhisme, il la haïssait et ne cessait de la ridiculiser. "Je n'aime pas la doctrine de Fô (Bouddha), a-t-il dit maintes fois*." Il ne croyait pas à ces dieux contemplatifs à larges oreilles, à bouche béante, à ventre rebondi, et se moquait ouvertement des marques de respect dont ils étaient l'objet :

可笑世間人	卒竟歸渺茫
紛紛仙佛供	風影不可控
修煉既身勞	果然呼既來
禮拜亦頭痛	一笑吾從衆

Il est risible que tous les hommes, en ce monde,
Aillent en foule adorer les génies et le Bouddha :
Pratiquer l'ascétisme fatigue le corps ;
Se prosterner selon les rites fait mal à la tête :
En somme, toutes ces choses là sont des tromperies ;
On ne peut pas saisir à l'ombre du vent†.
Si vraiment les dieux venaient quand on les appelle,
Avec un éclat de rire je suivrais la foule.

Les ministres du culte bouddhique avaient naturellement part à ce mépris ; Yuan ne les ménageait point, quoique cependant

* 余不喜佛法 Souei-yuan-che-houa, livre III.

† i.e., les dieux ne sont ni tangibles ni visibles, donc ils n'existent pas plus que le vent n'a d'ombre ; figure hardie des plus irrévérencieuses à l'égard du Bouddhisme.

il aimât mieux les saluer que se prosterner devant Fô; il se plaisait à citer ces vers d'un de ses collègues en poésie :

逢僧我必揖
見佛我不拜

拜佛佛無知
揖僧僧現在

Lorsque je rencontre un bonze, je ne manque pas de le saluer ;
(Mais) quand je vois une statue du bouddha je ne me prosterne pas :

Si on se prosterne devant Fô, celui-ci n'en sait rien ;

Si on salue un bonze, celui-ci est là (pour vous répondre)*.

Lorsque Yuan alla au T'ien-t'ai-chan, les bonzes de tous les temples sonnèrent les cloches et frappèrent du tambour, et invitèrent le poète à "se prosterner devant Fô, à rendre ses devoirs au Bouddha" (禮佛), "mais, dit Yuan, je ne m'en souciais nullement 余不奈煩."

Notre poète est généralement sobre de détails géographiques : ignorant, comme tout bon chinois, des pays étrangers et des choses du dehors, il ne pouvait parler que de l'empire chinois ; le champ, il est vrai, est vaste, et les lieux célèbres dont les noms eussent pu charger ses vers sont en grand nombre. Yuan a su faire un usage judicieux de ces ornemens poétiques et n'a pas mérité les reproches spirituels que Boileau adressa naguère à certains versificateurs de son temps :—

Irai-je dans une ode, en style de Malherbe,

Troubler dans ses roseaux le Danube superbe . . . †

Non certes : chez lui, la géographie n'est pas un vain placage, et, comme dans Horace, elle a sa raison dans la nature des idées qui l'amènent, des sentimens qui s'y mêlent : souvent c'est l'expression d'un souvenir personnel et vif des lieux, de l'attachement qu'il a conservé pour sa province et sa ville natale. Ainsi il a dit :—

前年人去漁陽道
今日鳥啼白門曉
同是天涯飄泊身

Il y a un an j'ai passé par la route de Yu-yang‡ ;

Aujourd'hui (j'entends) le corbeau croasser dès le matin à Pô-meun§,

* Souei-yuan-che-houa, livre XIV.

† Boileau, Satire IX.

‡ Nom de chef-lieu d'arrondissement de Ki-tchéou, province du Tche-li, sous les Ts'in et les Han, et resté le nom littéraire et poétique de cette ville.

§ Un des noms littéraires de Nanking ; Yu-yang, ville du nord, fait opposition avec pô-meun, ville du sud.

Les hommes sont comme les hirondelles, il sont toujours errants
ça et là*.

Et ailleurs :

飛鳥猶知戀故都
我來心欲別西湖

L'oiseau qui s'envole semble avoir de l'affection pour son ancien
nid :

Aussi viens-je dans le dessein de voir le Si-hou avant mon
départ†.

L'astronomie a peu de place dans les vers de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai : sans doute les noms de la lune, des constellations du Berger et de la Fileuse‡ et de quelques étoiles connues, apparaissent ci et là, mais il semble que cette science n'était pas familière au poète. Elle revêt chez lui un caractère un peu astrologique : les saisons, les fêtes de l'année, les phénomènes, voilà les rares éléments auxquels Yuan a recours.

La dernière classe d'ornements poétiques, la plus attrayante et la plus habituelle c'est celle des traits descriptifs, parsemés à tout instant : Yuan ne cesse jamais de peindre et ses coups de pinceau sont toujours brillants, vifs et précis ; j'oserai appliquer à la manière descriptive du poète, ce que mon savant et regretté maître, M. Patin, disait si excellemment de celle d'Horace : "Jamais il ne décrit pour décrire ; il n'est jamais long, il s'en faut de tout, minutieux dans ses descriptions . . . Le plus souvent une épithète caractéristique, d'autres fois un petit nombre de circonstances, choisies parmi les plus frappantes, rangées dans l'ordre qui les découvre à une observation rapide, groupées de telle sorte qu'elles révèlent l'idée de l'ensemble, et que le tableau, ébauché par le poète, s'achève dans l'esprit du lecteur, voilà la vraie, la grande description d'Horace. Cette description est toute passionnée, animée par un sentiment vif des scènes qu'elle reproduit, par l'amour de quelques lieux préférés, par le goût de la nature champêtre et de la vie rustique§."

* Fragment du 新燕篇, livre II.

† Le Si-hou est un lac célèbre qui baigne les murs de Hang-tchéou où comme on le sait, Yuan Tseu-ts'ai avait vu le jour (留別杭州故人.)

‡ Sur la légende du Berger et de la Fileuse voir *Journal Asiatique de Paris, Miscellanees chinois*.

§ Coup d'œil général sur Horace et ses œuvres.

Je ne citerai que deux ou trois passages au hasard :

聞我書聲息
四面老農來
壯者負犁鋤
衰者穿麻鞋
傭者戴蓬累
勞者擔薪柴
邀我大樹下
懷抱一齊開

今年苦風雨
良苗猶未栽
聞公讀書聲
毋乃舉茂才
愛其性真誠
發言如嬰孩
各贈一杯酒
縱橫臥莓苔

Apprenant que l'on ne m'entendait plus lire à haute voix,
De toutes parts arrivent les vieux laboureurs ;
Les hommes faits portent le râteau et le soc de charrue sur
l'épaule ;

Les vieillards ont mis des souliers de chanvre ;
Les enfants sont coiffés de larges chapeaux de paille coniques*,
Les travailleurs portent des fagots appendus à de longs bambous :
Tous m'invitent à me rendre sous les grands arbres,

Pour que nous ouvrions là mutuellement nos cœurs :

" Cette année, (disent-ils), on a souffert du vent et de la pluie :

" Les bonnes pousses n'ont pas encore été plantées.

" En vous entendant lire à haute voix,

" Nous sommes sûrs que vous arriverez à être bachelier†.

J'aime leur nature véritablement sincère,

Et les paroles qu'ils disent comme de petits enfants ;

A chacun je fais don d'une tasse de vin ;

Tous alors en long et en large, s'étendent sur la mousse‡.

朝來何所戲
持筆塗丹青
暮來何所爲

剪紙作衣裳
雖不中矩度
亦頗具偏旁

Quand venait le matin, avec quoi jouait-elle ? §

Elle prenait un pinceau et barbouillait des couleurs (sur du papier) ;

Lorsqu'arrivait le soir, que faisait-elle ?

Elle découpait du papier avec des ciseaux pour faire des vêtements :

Bien que ceux-ci ne fussent pas faits selon les règles,

Ils avaient néanmoins beaucoup de tournure.

* 蓬果 *P'oung-lei*, chapeau de paille de forme conique.

† 茂才 ou 秀才, bachelier.

‡ 隨園雜興, *Recueil*, livre VI.

§ Extrait de la pièce 哭阿良, Élégie sur la mort de sa fille A-léang qu'il perdit à l'âge de cinq ans (livre XX.)

爺好治書齋
古玩堆琳琅
兒偶遊其中

嗟然道勝常
一坐不肯起
看爺治文章

Son père* se plaisait une fois à mettre en ordre son cabinet de travail,

A empiler les bibelots à côté des bijoux.

L'enfant vint par hasard se promener au milieu de ces objets.

“C'est plus beau que d'ordinaire, dit-elle souriante !

Et s'asseyant, elle ne voulut plus s'en aller,

Regardant son père ranger des compositions littéraires.

VI.

Les œuvres de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai ont été réunies, comme il a été dit plus haut, à celles d'un certain nombre de ses disciples, parens et amis, membres de l'Académie du *Soueï-yuan*, et ce recueil considérable (il comprend huit *套* *t'ao* ou volumes) a été publié sous le titre de *隨園三十種* *Soueï-yuan san-che-tchoung*, les trente espèces d'ouvrages du jardin de Souei. Voici la liste des principaux écrits dûs au pinceau même de notre littérateur.

小倉山房文集 *Siao-ts'ang-chan-fang-ouen-tsi*, Recueil de littérature de la maison sise sur la colline du grenier, en trente-cinq livres. On y trouve des poésies irrégulières, des épitaphes, des inscriptions funéraires, des biographies d'hommes célèbres du temps, des lettres, préfaces d'ouvrages, récits, dissertations, élégies, plaintes déposées devant les tribunaux, etc.

小倉山房詩集 *Siao-ts'ang-chan-fang-che-tsi*, Collection des poésies de la maison . . . etc. . . . en trente-sept livres plus deux livres de supplément (*附續集*).

小倉山房外集 *Siao-ts'ang-chan-fang-ouaï-tsi*, Recueil extérieur de la maison, etc. . . . Il renferme en huit livres des rapports et mémoires au trône, des préfaces, lettres, etc.

小倉山房尺牘 *Siao-ts'ang-chan-fang-tch'i-e-tou*, Recueil des lettres de la maison, etc. . . . on y lit toute l'élégante et raffinée correspondance de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai avec les mandarins et lettrés de son époque (10 livres).

袁太史稿 *Yuan-ts'ai-che-kao*, Brouillons du Préfet Yuan. Dans cette partie ont été réunies par un de ses disciples, ses thèses pour le Baccalauréat, la licence et le doctorat : ce sont, selon l'usage, des amplifications de textes tirés des classiques.

* i.e. le poète lui-même. Extraits de la même Élégie que précédemment.

隨園詩話 *Souei-yuan-che-houa*, paroles de *Souei-yuan* sur la poésie. Ce sont les jugements, opinions, critiques de *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai* sur la poésie en général, les œuvres poétiques et mille autres sujets variés (16 livres); beaucoup de notes écrites sur sa propre vie y ont été rangées.

隨園補遺 *Souei-yuan-pou-y*, Supplément aux paroles sur la poésie; suite du recueil précédent (10 livres).

隨園隨筆 *Souei-yuan-souei-pi*, Morceaux écrits ou courant du pinceau : essais sur les Canoniques, les historiens, l'administration; les examens, les Rituels, la poésie, la chiromancie, etc. (28 livres).

隨園食單 *Souei-yuan-che-tan*, Menus de *Souei-yuan*. C'est un vrai manuel de cuisine où sont données les meilleures recettes pour préparer les principaux plats chinois. *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai* nous a divulgué ainsi les secrets des mets fins et délicats qu'il offrait aux palais exercés et compétents des membres de l'Académie de *Souei-yuan*. A en juger par ce petit livre, *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai* n'était pas seulement un littérateur distingué mais encore un gourmet de première classe.

Telles sont les principales œuvres de *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai**. Parmi celles de ses disciples, dont il sera parlé plus longuement ailleurs, je citerai une collection de contes, petites nouvelles, faits divers et fantastiques, intitulée **子不語** *Tseu-pou-yu*, c'est-à-dire "choses dont Confucius n'a pas parlé." Dans ces morceaux, composés par les membres de l'Académie de *Souei-yuan* entre deux joutes de poésies ou deux discussions littéraires, on reconnaît souvent les idées et le style de *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai* lui-même.

* Le **江寧府志** *Kiang-ning-fou-tche*, Description de la préfecture de *Kiang-ning* ou *Nanking*, cite, au livre LIV, parmi les œuvres littéraires des gens originaires de l'ancienne capitale du sud, ou y ayant résidé, un ouvrage intitulé **江寧縣新志** *Kiang-ning-chien-sin-tche*, nouvelle description des districts de *Kiang-ning* (*Nan-king*) et attribué à *Yuan Tseu-ts'ai*—La même Description donne au livre XLII (chap. IX des hommes célèbres), en une page, une biographie de notre poète : c'est le résumé de l'article que lui a consacré *Li Yuan-tou* dans son *Encyclopédie biographique*. Le compilateur du *Kiang-ning-fou-tche* ne donne pas toutefois la vraie raison du retour de *Yuan* du *Chan-si* : il se borne à dire "qu'il revint à cause de la mort de son père, et s'établit à *Nan-king* où il fit un jardin."—Dans la liste chronologique de tous les fonctionnaires qui ont passé par la préfecture et y ont exercé des charges, (**秋官表** livre XXII), je lis les lignes suivantes : "Originaire de *Ts'ien-t'ang* du *Tche-kiang*, docteur, il entra au *Han-lin-yuan* et devint *Chou-ki-che* en passant par l'examen *Houng-pô*," c'est une erreur puisque, ainsi qu'on l'a vu plus haut, il ne réussit pas à ce concours.

Il est au moins probable, sinon certain, que la plupart ont été retouchés par le maître. Une autre série assez curieuse est celle qui porte le titre de 女弟子詩 *Niu-ti-tseu-che*, poésies des disciples-femmes (de Yuan Tseu-ts'ai): ce sont les productions des personnes du beau sexe qui, séduites et enchantées par le talent du président du Souei-yuan, tentèrent de suivre ses traces glorieuses: quelques-unes des ces pièces sont bien écrites et gracieuses, elles méritent d'être lues. Ces poésies, classées en six livres, sont précédées de détails biographiques sur les "*bas bleus*" à qui nous les devons.

CHOIX DE POÉSIES DE YUAN TSEU-TS'AI.

I. 寒夜 *La nuit froide**.

寒夜讀書忘却眠 美人含怒奪燈去
錦衾香燼鑪無烟 問郎知是幾更天

Dans la nuit froide, la lecture m'a fait oublier l'heure du sommeil:
• Les parfums de ma couverture dorée⁽¹⁾ se vont évanouir, le foyer ne fume plus:
Ma belle amie, contenant à peine sa colère, vient de m'arracher la lampe,
En me demandant: Savez-vous quelle veille il est?

Note.

(1) Les élégants chinois ont accoutumé d'imprégner de parfums subtils, avant le coucher, leur lit et leurs couvertures.

II. 元旦 *Le matin du jour de l'An.*

爆竹隣家響未終 千樹梅花迎我笑
開門賀客已匆匆 三朝文獻有誰同
天晴好着黃綿襖 諸公莫羨衰顏老
奴老都成白髮翁 昨飲屠蘇臉尚紅

Dans les maisons voisines le bruit des pétards n'a pas encore pris fin:
J'ouvre ma porte et une foule de visiteurs se précipite pour me féliciter.

* Recueil des Poésies, livre VI.

† Recueil, livre XXXVI.

Le temps est beau et l'on peut se réchauffer au soleil⁽¹⁾;
 Mes serviteurs ont vieilli et sont devenus des vénérables à
 cheveux blancs;
 Mille pruniers⁽²⁾ en fleurs m'accueillent par leurs sourires:
 Sous les trois derniers empereurs⁽³⁾, qui peut m'être comparé en
 littérature!
 Mes amis n'admirent pas (aujourd'hui) mon visage flétri par la
 vieillesse;
 Hier, en effet, j'ai bu du *Tou-sou*⁽⁴⁾ et j'ai les joues encore rosées.

Notes.

(1) Litt., on peut endosser la tunique de coton jaune; allusion à un fait rapporté par l'ouvrage intitulé 玉露 *Yu-lou*, Rosée de Jade: “何斯舉 *Hô-sse-kiu* dit: pendant plusieurs décades du premier mois, la pluie et la neige n'avaient cessé de tomber: tout-à-coup le ciel s'éclaircit et il fit beau, le vieillard et la vieille femme s'adressèrent de mutuelles félicitations en disant: “黃綿襖子出矣 la tunique de coton jaune vient d'apparaître.” *Hô Sse-kiu* fit à ce sujet le vers suivant:

日暖如著黃綿襖

on sent la chaleur du soleil comme si l'on avait mis la tunique de coton jaune (i.e. il fait chaud). (Cité par l'Encyclopédie 淵鑑類函 *Yuan-kien-lei-han* livre II, p. 17). La première source de cette expression serait une phrase du 幼學古事 *Yeu-chi-kou che*, livre V: “Un hiver, un certain mendiant n'avait pas de vêtements: il se plaça sous les rayons du soleil et s'écria: “Voilà, j'ai maintenant une tunique de coton jaune!”

(2) Le 梅 *mei* est le 臘梅 *lâ-meï* (quelquefois le poète n'écrit que 臘 *lâ* tout court), *Chimonanthus fragrans*, 臘月開花, VI^e mois, car en Chine, ses fleurs apparaissent toujours en décembre. *Sinicum* by E. Bretschneider, *Journ. of the N.-C. Bran. As. Soc.* p. 64).

(3) Yuan Tseu-ts'ai vit les règnes de K'ang-chi, Young-tcheng et K'ien-loung.

(4) 屠蘇 *Tou-sou*: “C'est, dit l'Encyclopédie *Yuan-kien-lei-han*, livre XVII, p. 6, le nom des habitations rustiques en paille que les ermites taoïstes se construisaient dans la solitude. Il y avait une fois un homme qui habitait une de ces demeures, et qui, chaque année, dans la nuit du dernier jour de l'année (除夜) donnait à ses voisins une espèce de drogue qu'il leur enjoignait de jeter dans un puits. Au jour de l'an, on puisait de l'eau dans ce puits et on en mettait dans un vase avec du vin, puis tous buvaient ce breuvage. Ainsi on évitait la peste et les maladies. De nos jours on a trouvé cette prescription mais on ignore les noms et prénoms de cet individu, le nom seul de *tou-sou* est resté à ce breuvage.”

III. 楊花 *Fleurs du saule*.

楊花與雪花
 一樣無心緒

不管是何家
 隨風但吹去

Les fleurs de saule sont semblables aux flocons de neige :
Comme eux elles n'ont point d'intention arrêtée ;
Elles ne se soucient pas de savoir où elles se reposeront :
Elles suivent seulement le vent qui les entraîne.

Note.

Comparez la pièce suivante du poète français Arnault :

De ta tige détachée
Pauvre feuille desséchée,
Où vas-tu ?—je n'en sais rien :
L'orage a brisé le chêne
Qui seul était mon soutien,
De son inconstante haleine,
Le Zéphyr ou l'Aquilon
Depuis ce jour me promène
De la montagne au vallon,
Je vais où le vent me mène,
Sans me plaindre ou m'effrayer,
Je vais où va toute chose,
Où va la feuille de rose
Et la feuille de laurier.

IV. 枯葉 *La feuille sèche.*

草木在人間 枯葉戀高枝
去來有時節 自覺無顏色

Les plantes et les arbres qui sont en ce monde,
Ont un temps marqué pour vivre et pour mourir
La feuille sèche jette un regard de regret vers la haute branche (1)
Elle sent elle-même qu'elle n'a plus sa couleur (primitive) (2).

Notes.

(1) D'où elle est tombée.

(2) Elle est tout ensemble honteuse et pleine de regrets d'être desséchée et jaunie.

V. 落葉 *La chute des feuilles.*

落葉如人老 都從霜下落
依依戀夕曛 也有後先分

Les feuilles qui tombent rappellent la vieillesse de l'homme :
Avec regret elles jettent un regard d'amour vers le soleil couchant ;
Toutes sans exception doivent leur chute au givre.
Mais cependant on peut distinguer l'ordre dans lequel elles
périssent (1).

Note.

(1) Je suis obligé de paraphraser un peu le dernier vers pour en rendre le sens. — L'idée philosophique indiquée par les deux derniers vers est que tous les hommes doivent mourir mais qu'ils ne meurent pas tous au même âge.

VI. 丙辰元旦 *Le matin du jour de l'an Ping-tch'en (mardi
9 février 1796.)*

I.

八十又添一	賀客誰投刺
新君正紀元	梅花代管門
恩逢千叟宴	老妻梳白髮
身歷四朝尊	手自弄粉盆

II.

六十年前事	冉冉浮雲過
回頭似在旁	重重春夢長
一鞭行萬里	滄桑何處問
三策試明光	只問滿頭霜

I.

A quatre vingts (ans) vient de s'ajouter encore un (1):
C'est juste la première année du nouveau prince.
J'ai joui du bienfait d'assister au banquet des vieillards (2),
Et j'ai eu l'honneur de traverser moi-même les règnes de quatre
princes (3).

Quel visiteur, venu pour me féliciter, a jeté cette carte ? (4)
A ma place les fleurs du prunier (5) gardent ma porte :
Ma vieille épouse peigne ses cheveux blancs,
Et de ses mains prépare le bassin d'huile de lin (6).

II.

Les événements de ces soixante dernières années,
Semblent être à mes côtés quand je tourne la tête.
La cravache à la main j'ai parcouru dix mille li :
Trois fois j'ai passé l'examen du Palais (7).
Tous ces souvenirs s'en vont lentement comme des images,
Peu à peu ce rêve agréable (8) s'allonge encore :
En quel lieu m'informerai-je des choses d'autan ? (9)
Je ne puis m'adresser qu'au givre qui couronne ma tête.

Notes.

(1) Le poète venait d'avoir 81 ans. "C'était la première année du règne du Kia-king (note chinoise)."

(2) Litt., le banquet des mille vieillards. Ce fut, jusqu'au règne de Kia-king, une ancienne coutume à la Cour de Chine de donner un festin, chaque année, à tous les vieillards de l'empire. Le même jour l'empereur leur distribuait des étoffes de soie et de satin (Encyclopédie *Yuan-kien-lei-han*, livre CLXI, où l'on trouve un bon résumé historique de cet usage). Cette coutume remonte à une haute antiquité : il en est déjà fait mention dans le **禮記** *Li-ki* (trad. Zottoli, p. 739) : **食三老五更於大學** *Conviviari tribus senibus et quinque expertis in majore gymnasio.* A cette heure elle est désuète.

(3) i.e. K'ang-hi, Young-tcheng, Ki'en-loung, Kia-king.

(4) Litt., **投刺** a jeté cette épine. L'explication de cette expression est donnée par le **幼學須知** *Yéou-chiô-siu-tche*, en note : "Les anciens n'avaient pas de papier ; ils écrivaient leurs noms avec une épine, sur une tablette de bambou." **刺** *ts'eu* épine, est donc devenu "carte de visite écrite avec une épine" et **投刺** est resté avec le sens de "remettre une carte de visite" **具名帖**, (*Yéou-chio . . . 人事*). Je lis dans le **梁書** *Léang-chou*, **諸葛璩傳** Biographie de Tchou-kô Kiu : "Un certain **江祀** *Kiang Sseu* recommanda Kiu à l'empereur Ming-ti en disant : Kiu est pauvre, observe le *taô*, etc. . . . il n'a jamais remis de carte de visite aux Ministres d'Etat **未嘗投刺邦宰** (i.e., il ne cherche pas à arriver en flattant les grands).

(5) Le *Lâ-méi* ou *Chimonanthus fragrans*.

(6) J'ai trouvé deux explications à cette expression **粉盃** *Sin-p'eun*, bassin d'huile de lin. D'après le **歲時雜記** *Souei-che-tsâ-ki*, Mélanges divers sur les saisons et fêtes de l'année, le soir du dernier jour de l'année on fabrique des chandelles de graines de chanvre (**蕢子**), que l'on plante ensuite dans le résidu épais obtenu après la fabrication du *Hou-ma-yéou* ou *huile de lin*. On allume ces chandelles le matin du jour de l'An.—D'après le **月令通考** *Yüé-ling-t'oung-k'ao*, Examen général des fêtes et coutumes de l'année, ce serait le nom du bassin dans lequel, le dernier jour de l'année, on brûle, à l'aide de fagots de sapin, les images fanées des dieux lares (on sait qu'au jour de l'an il est d'usage d'en coller de neuves sur les murs) **除日送舊神焚松柴謂之粉盃**. Cf. Dictionnaire de K'ang-hi, *sub voce*.

(7) L'examen présidé par l'empereur, qui a lieu dans la salle du Palais appelée **光明殿** *Kouang-ming-tien*. (Cf. Mayers, *Chinese Government*). Le poète a écrit ici **明光** *Ming-kouang* pour la rime.

(8) Litt. **春夢** *Tch'oung-moung*, rêves du printemps. "Le poète **Seu** *Toung-pô*, des *Soung*, devenu vieux, passait un jour, portant un **大瓢** *Tâ-piao* ou portion de bambou fichée dans un bâton et formant une sorte de grande cuillère, dans les environs de **昌化** *Tch'ang-houâ* (*Yun-nan*), en chantant dans les champs. Une femme de 70 ans, qui apportait aux travailleurs leur pitance (**饁婦**) dit : "Seigneur, les richesses et les honneurs d'antan ont été comme un rêve printanier ! **昔日富貴一場春夢**." Le poète l'approuva **然之**. Les gens du village appelèrent cette femme **春夢婆** la vieille des rêves printaniers. (Le **侯鯖錄** cité par le thesaurus *P'ei-ouen-yun-fou*, livre LX, p. 8).

Sou T'oung-pô a dit lui-même quelque part :

人似秋鴻來有信
事如春夢了無痕

Les hommes ressemblent aux grues d'automne dont la venue est toujours annoncée :

Les événements sont comme les rêves du printemps, qui s'évanouissent sans laisser de traces.

(9) *Choses d'autan*, litt., 滄桑 *Ts'ang-sang*, le mer et les mûriers, cataclysmes de la nature. D'après le 神仙傳 *Chen-sien-tchouan*, Biographies des Génies, la fée 麻姑 *Mâ-kou* dit à son frère 王方平 *Ouang-fang-p'ing* : " Depuis que je vous sers j'ai vu trois fois le 東海 *T'oung-hai*, Mer Orientale, transformée en 桑田 *Tang-tien*, champs de mûriers. Je viens d'aller à l'île de *Poung-lai*. L'eau est en moindre quantité que par le passé : elle a un peu diminué. Est-ce que la mer va de nouveau se changer en une colline ou une plaine ? " Fang-t'ing répondit : " La Mer Orientale va de nouveau soulever du sable (i.e., se dessécher) " Voir le *Yuan-kien-lai-han*, livre XXXVI, p. 7 ; cf. *Mayers, Chinese Reader's Manual*, p. 148, No. 471.

APPENDICE.

Note sur l'examen Pô-chio 'Houng-ts'eu.*

Le nom de cet examen, 博學鴻詞, signifie *vastes études et pompeuses expressions*. Quelque fois on le trouve abrégé sous la forme de 鴻博 *Hung-pô*†.

L'institution de ce concours semble remonter fort loin car il en est déjà fait mention la dix-neuvième année 開元 *K'ai-yuan* des T'ang (732) : le célèbre encyclopédiste Ma Touan-lin cite deux lettrés qui réussirent à cet examen et parvinrent à de hautes dignités : 鄭昉 *Tchong Fong* et 陶翰 *Tau 'Han*. De nombreux hommes d'Etat et de lettres passèrent par cette filière : tels 裴度 *P'ei Tou*‡, le poète 劉禹錫 *Lèou Yu-si*§, 陸贄 *Lou Tche*||, dont les rapports sont restés des modèles de style officiel, etc.

Sous les Soung, un décret de la deuxième année 紹聖 *Chao-scheng* (1095) ordonna une session du Pô-chio 'Houng-ts'eu :

* D'après le grand ouvrage sur les études intitulé 中樞政考, l'encyclopédie 文獻通考 de Ma Touan-lin, l'encyclopédie 玉海, le petit manuel des examens 學考, etc.

† Voir mes *Instructions familières* du Dr. Tchou Pô-lou, Notice sur la vie et les œuvres du Dr. Tchou Pô-lou, p. 7, à la note.

‡ *Mayers, Manual*, No. 564.

§ *Mayers, No. 423.*

|| *Mayers, No. 435.*

mais il paraît qu'à cette époque on recherchait plus l'élégance pompeuse du style (文詞) que le vrai savoir (寔學), et les savants ne voulaient pas se présenter pour concourir. Les *Yuan* et les *Ming* ne suivirent pas les traces des dynasties précédentes à cet égard et sous leur domination il n'y eut pas de session. K'ang-hi en décréta une la 16^e année de son règne (1677): cent quarante-trois candidats se présentèrent, cinquante seulement furent reçus. Les élus entrèrent au *Han-lin-yuan* et au *Nei-kô*. Un nouvel examen eut lieu la première année K'ien-loung (1736): sur cent soixante-seize candidats, quinze furent admis au *Han-lin-yuan*. Cinq, rangés dans la première classe, furent nommés 編修 *pien-siéou*, les dix autres, formant la deuxième classe, devinrent 檢討 *Hien-t'ao* et 庶吉士 *Chou-ki-che*.

Voici comment ce concours littéraire avait lieu: l'empereur lançait d'abord un décret invitant tous les mandarins de la capitale et des provinces à recommander tous ceux qu'ils connaissaient 特詔中外諸臣各舉所知, — que les candidats fussent mandarins ou non 無論已仕未仕, — puis appelait ceux-ci à la capitale 徵詣闕下. L'empereur lui-même présidait la séance, parcourait les thèses une fois celles-ci classées par deux ou trois examinateurs de mérite, puis distribuait les charges à ceux qui avaient réussi.

Sous les *Soung*, les sujets donnés étaient des 詔 décrets, 序 préfaces, 表 mémoires, 頌 éloges, 記 récits, etc. Sous K'ang-hi on demanda

un 賦 *fou*, pièce de vers irrégulière,

un 序 *siu*, préface.

un 詩 *che* pièce de vers.

Sous K'ien-loung

deux 策問 *ts'o-ouen*, interrogations,

un 賦 *fou*, pièce de vers irrégulière,

un 七言排律 *ts'i-yen-p'ai-lu*, pièce en vers de sept pieds,

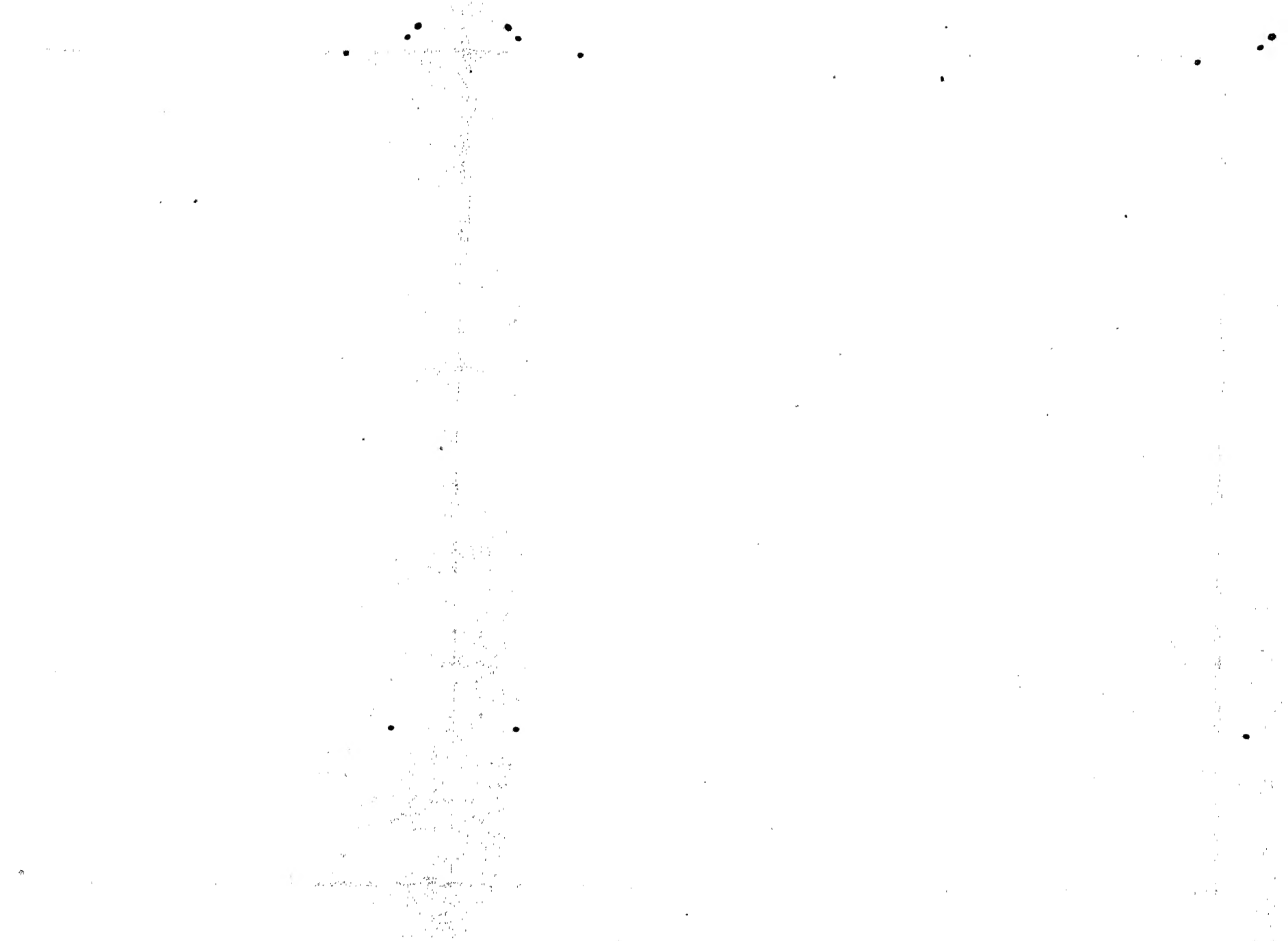
un 論 *loun*, dissertation.

L'empereur Young-tcheng, qui, lui aussi, avait décrété une session du *Pô-chio* 'Houng-ts'eu (sa mort l'empêcha d'avoir lieu) a défini, par les termes suivants, dans son décret d'appel, celui qui est appelé à réussir à ce concours: “品行端醇 le lettré dont la conduite est honnête, 文材優贍 dont les talents littéraires sont étendus et suffisants; 杭經薛史 qui fait des canoniques son oreiller et des annales sa nourriture; 殫見洽聞 qui a une perspicacité profonde et un vaste entendement;

足稱博學鴻詞之選 pourra être appelé un homme choisi pour le *Pô-chio* 'Houng-ts'eu.' En réalité il n'en fallait pas tant pour obtenir la palme : Yuan Tseu-ts'iaï, peut-être parce qu'il n'avait pu le faire, prétendait que les compositions les plus extraordinaires étaient données et que le succès n'était qu'une affaire de hasard : "il suffit, disait il, de connaître à fond le recueil d'expressions intitulé 廣事類府 *Kouang-che-lei-fou*, pour être reçu."

Les guerres et les troubles des règnes de Kia-king de Taô-kouang, de Hien-fung et de T'oung-tche nuisirent aux Belles-lettres, et depuis près d'un siècle l'épée a primé le pinceau : il n'y a plus eu de session du *Pô-chio* 'Houng-ts'eu. "De nos jours, disent les Chinois, les jeunes gens n'étudient plus que la rhétorique (八股) pour réussir aux examens réguliers qui leur ouvre à deux battants la porte du fonctionarisme et, par suite, de la fortune, et les vrais savants deviennent de plus en plus rares."





ARTICLE II.

THE SÉRICA OF PTOLEMY AND ITS INHABITANTS.

BY

THOS. W. KINGSMILL.

So much confusion has arisen from haphazard identifications of localities and tribes mentioned in ancient Chinese history, that the following remarks on the geography of the districts between the Panñr and China at the beginning of the Christian era may be found useful. We still find Chinese students writing of the Hinng-nn as Huns, of the Yuch-ti as Getæ or Massagetæ, of the Tahia as Dahæ, &c. Those who desire to maintain these thrice slain fallacies will of course continue to do so. I would however fain believe that there are rising students who desire to explore the older history of China, and to search for themselves the native authorities. To them I would point out how important it is that they should start with a knowledge of the races which at various times have come in contact with Chinese civilization. To gain this knowledge it is not sufficient to study Chinese writings alone, which at best give a loose account of the geography and ethnology of countries outside the Central State: it is necessary also to consult what is available from other sources, notably the Greek and Latin classics as well as the Indian and Parsi writings, should they really wish to gain an insight into the tribal migrations, which have had so powerful an influence on the growth of modern society.

Ptolemy for long occupied a commanding position amongst geographers: almost up to the discovery of America he was the sole authority to which disputed points were referred; and although he has long lost this pre-eminence, no one desirous of studying ancient geography can afford to ignore the lights, often it is true deceptive, which he brought to bear on the subject. It is interesting then to enquire what he knew of

China and its western neighbours. His 6th Book, in the 15th and 16th chapters, treats of Scythia without the Imaus and of Sêrica. I shall give a literal translation of what he has to say.

SCYTHIA beyond Imaus is bounded on the West by inner Scythia and the Sacae along the whole diversion of the mountains towards the north; on the North by the unknown land; on the East by Sêrica along a straight line the extremities of which are situated respectively in E. Long. 150° N. Lat. 63° and Long. 160° Lat. 35°; on the South by part of India beyond the Ganges along a parallel line joining the aforesaid extremities.

In this part lies the western portion of the Auxakian mountains, whose extremities are situated in Long. 149° Lat. 49° and Long. 165° Lat. 54°. Also the western part of those called the Kasian mountains extending from Long. 152° Lat. 41° to Long. 162° Lat. 44°. And the western part of the Emôdan mountains in Long. 153° Lat. 36° and Long. 165° Lat. 36°. And in the Auxakian mountains the source of the Oikhardes River Long. 153° Lat. 51°.

The northern part of this Scythia is occupied by the Abii Scyths, and under these the Horse-eating Scyths, adjoining whom stretches the country of Auxakitis; and under it beside the said starting point the country of Kasia, below which are the Khatae Scyths and the country of Akhasa; and under this last beside the Emôdan mountains the Kharaunaean Scyths.

In this portion are the below mentioned cities:—

Auxakia	Long. 144°	Lat. 49° 40'
Scythic Issêdon	150°	48° 30'
Khaurana	150°	37° 15'
Soita	145°	35° 20'

SERIKA is bounded on the West by outer Scythia along the before set-out line; on the North by unknown land along the parallel of Thûle; likewise on the East by unknown land along the meridian line of which the ends are situated respectively in Long. 180° Lat. 63° and Long. 180° Lat. 35°; on the South by the remaining portion of India beyond Ganges along the same parallel to the extremity whose position is Long. 173° Lat. 35°; and ... along an extended line to its extremity at the unknown land.

Mountains surround Sêrika, amongst them those called the Anniba whose extremities lie respectively in Long. 153° Lat. 60° and Long. 171° Lat. 56°. The eastern portion of the Auxakian range of which extremity is situated Long. 165° Lat. 54°. Those called the Asmiræan from Long. 167° Lat. 47° 30' to Long. 174° Lat. 47° 30'. And the eastern portion of the Kasian lying between Long. 162° Lat. 44° and Long. 171° Lat. 40°. Also the Mt. Thagûron whose middle is in Long. 170° Lat. 43°. The eastern portion of those called the Emôdan and Sêric extending to Long. 165° Lat. 36°. And the range called the Ottorokorras whose extremities lie Long. 169° Lat. 36° and Long. 176° Lat. 39°.

Two rivers flow through the greater part of Sêrika; the Oekhardes whose rise in the Auxakian mountains has been noticed, it also has a source in the Asmiræan range in Long. 174° Lat. 47° 30', and bends towards the Kasian in Long. 160° Lat. 49° 30', in which also is a source

Long, 161° Lat. 44° 15'; and that known as the Bautisos rising in the Kasian range in Long. 160° Lat. 43°, and in the Ottorokorras in Long. 176° Lat. 39°, and bending towards the Emôdan in Long. 168° Lat. 39°, in which mountains is a source Long. 160° Lat. 37°.

Races of cannibals pasture the most northern parts of Sêrica, south of which the Annibi inhabit the mountains called by their name. Between these and the Auxakian are the Sizyges, south of whom are the Dâmnæ, also along the Oekhardes river the Pialæ or Piaddæ and below these, called after the river, the Oekhardæ.

More easterly still than the Annibi are the Garinaëi, and the Rabannæ or Rabbanaëi; south of whom along the like-named mountains is the country of Asmiræa; and below this amongst the Kasians are the Issédones, a powerful tribe; more east than they are the Throani, and below these the Ithagûri. On the east of the like-named mountains below the Issédones are the Aspakærae, and still to the south of these the Bâtae, and to the extreme south along the Emôdan and Sêric mountains the Ottorokorrae.

The towns of Sêrika are named as below:—

Damna	Long. 156°	Lat. 51° 20'
Piala or Piadda	160°	49° 40'
Asmiræa	170°	48°
Throana	164° 40'	47° 40'
Sêric Issêdon	162°	45°
Aspakara or Aspakæa	162° 30'	41° 40'
Drôsakhê or Rosakla	167° 40'	42° 30'
Paliaia	162° 30'	41°
Abagana	163° 30'	39° 30'
Thogara	171° 20'	39° 40'
Daxata	174°	39° 30'
Orosana	162°	37° 30'
Ottorokorra	165°	37° 15'
Solana	169°	37° 30'
Sêra Metropolis	177°	38° 35'

Two things are more especially worthy of note in the above; the first is the eastern displacement of Sêrica with regard to India, Ptolemy actually placing Khoten (*Xaïpava*) four degrees east of the mouths of Ganges; and secondly, that of China itself he knew nothing except the name, or rather names, by which it was popularly known, and more curiously still that he applied these names, not to China itself but to the neighbouring lauds. The second statement is almost a corollary of the first, as he had to fill up somehow the void space which on his principles of geography lay north of Indo-China. Knowing nothing of China beyond the vague Sêra Metropolis (*i.e.*, Changan in Shensi) he made his Sêrica extend into the unknown land, which had indeed once been Sêrik, *i.e.*, 秦國 *Sîn-kwok* (*Ts'in-kwoh*), and which was in his time Thinae, *i.e.*, 漢國 *Dhân-kwok* the country of the Dhâns or

Hâns, for in modern Chinese the original aspirated initial has dwindled to a simple *h*.

China itself in his pages is still the "Ἀγνώστος γῆ, the "Unknown land," which bounded Sêrica and Thînae, both names of itself on the west and north respectively. Nor is this much to be wondered at: the Chinese author of the How Hân Shû was equally ignorant of Rome; Tats'in, the great Sêr (*i.e.*, Syria) of the west bounded his geographical view, as to the Mid-Asiatic of to-day India obscures the vision of the ruling but distant power of England.

Of Sêrica Ptolemy seems to have had information from two separate authorities at least, both apparently Indian, and the attempt to combine these sources has led him to dislocate strangely the geography of Eastern Turkestan,—Scythia beyond Imaus as one of his authorities not inaptly denominated it. With the other Sêrica (*i.e.*, Ts'in-kwoh) a name by which China was known for a brief period, came to be applied to the same district, and hence we find Auxakîtis and the Kasian country divided into two by an imaginary line, and the Abian Scyths made a different people from the Annibi, while the chief town of the Issêdones is divided into two with an interval of no less than twelve degrees of longitude. To the critical student these errors afford proof of the general trustworthiness of Ptolemy's work, and show, though unwittingly, that he was conscientious in the reproduction of his authorities.

Scythia beyond Imaus, he tells us, is bounded on the west by inner Sythia and the Sakae, north by the unknown land, east (correctly) by Sêrica, *i.e.*, the country of Ts'in, and south by part of India beyond the Ganges. It contains the western portion of the Auxakian mountains (the modern Altai range), as well as the Kasian and Emôdan, the former containing the sources of the Oekhardes. Dwelling in it are the Abii Scyths, the horse-eating Scyths, the countries of Auxikîtis and Kasia; the Khatae Scyths and the Akhasan country, and beyond all these beside the Emôdan mountains the Kharaunnaean Scyths. Its towns are Auxakia, Scythic Issêdon, Khaurana and Soîta. Strange as these names seem at first sight, we have the means of identification from other sources. In Imaus and Emôdus we have the Indian Himâyâlas and Himavat, the Snowy mountains *par excellence*. In Kasius we must find the Tien-shan or Tengri-tagh of to-day, though we seem to meet with no direct analogue of

the name from other authorities. Both the Chinese and Turkish names seem to have originated from an old Aryan form Indragiri, Indra's mountains; Kasius we may refer to the root *kâs*, to glow, and both have probably their origin from the glowing aspect of the range seen from the plains of Turkestan. The latitude given for the Kasian range 41° to 44° north is sufficiently near their actual position. North of these lay the Auxakian range, but here Ptolemy's geography becomes sadly confused with the increasing distance from his sources of information; the situation corresponds roughly with the ranges north of the modern Sergiopol.

North of these lay the Abii, whom we may connect with the Annibi of the subsequent chapter, associated with horse-eating Scyths, probably Mongol or Turkish. In connection with these mountains, probably to the south in the valleys of the Ili, the Chu and the Narin was the country of Auxakitis, in which, if Ptolemy's longitudes are to be trusted, lay Scythic Issêdon, pointing to a connexion, or confusion between Auxakians and Issêdones. Now the Arang or Arg rût of the Bundelesh was the Jaxartes, the Araxes of Herodotus "over against the Issedonians*," and this district was called in the Pahlavi Vendidad Arangistân†; of this form Araxikitis (from verb *karîman*) shortened to Auxakitis was a simple translation. Ammianus Marcellinus‡ gives us yet another form in Nazavicium apparently a corruption for Araxavicium as if Rangwik; but see below.

South again of the Kasian range is Akhasa with its inhabitants the Khatae Scyths. There is little difficulty in the identification of the first with Kashgar the Kangku, 康居, of the Shi-ki. It seems to have a respectable antiquity; 康 *delightful* is phonetically connected with Sans. *jush*, *amare*, *desiderare*, Zend *zush*; and both with Sans. *ras*, Zend *rañh*, whence the name "Rañha upon the waters§" the sixteenth best of created countries. Kashgar (*jâgrâmi*, *vigilo*) is then the "delectable watch tower;" and the Chinese form seems to imply that this name is antecedent to the Christian era.

Below Akhasa again were the Kharannéan Scyths, whom we must identify with the great Turkish tribe called by the Chinese

* Her. I. 201, 202.

† Haug's Essays on the Parsis, 2nd Ed., 364.

‡ Am. Mar. XXIII, vi. 64.

§ Vendidad, I. 20.

匈奴 Hiungnû, but whose name I have elsewhere shown* was Kara Nûr or Kara Niru. This tribe according to Ptolemy lay along the Emôdan mountains, a position which might have been assigned to them about 176 B.C. when they dominated the districts lying east of Khoten, but was scarcely correct in his own time, after their successive defeats at the hands of the Hân emperors.

The cities referred to outer Scythia are Auxakia explained above; Scythic Issêdon; Khaurana evidently an error of the transcriber for Khantana, *i.e.*, Khotan and placed almost correctly in N. Lat. $37^{\circ} 15'$; and Soîta which must represent the modern Swat north of the Peshawar valley. Ptolemy it will be noticed places Khaurana in Long. 150° E. fifty-one degrees out of its true position, or according to his own reckoning with regard to India about thirty degrees too far east.

This discrepancy is to be explained by his duplication of outer Scythia as well as in part by his insertion of the Sakae as a different nation, and this last enables us to replace Yarkand, omitted from its list in its proper place. Amongst the list of tribes inhabiting Sakae he mentions the Toornae apparently for To-yornae. Now Sze-ma Tsien call the district of Yarkand (Shi-ki, chap. cxxiii) Tayuan 大宛 *i.e.*, Ta-yar, and calls its chief town Urh-shi 貳師 apparently Urdu or Urdhva, a regularly walled town with a citadel inside, and though Ptolemy tells us that the inhabitants of Sakae were nomads living in woods and caves, we know from other sources that such could not have been the case. We therefore can have little difficulty in identifying the two, and likewise can understand better the growth of the name†.

Leaving outer Scythia we shall notice in Ptolemy's description of Sêrica how much is repeated. Sêrica he informs us is bounded north and east by unknown lands, and on the south by farther India and Sinae, and is surrounded by mountains. North are the Auxakian, as before, the Anniba and the Asmiræan, of the latter of which I shall speak below; between these and the next the eastern portion of the Kasian and Mount Thagûron, and in the south the eastern part of the Emôdan and Sêric mountains, corresponding to the northern range of the

* *China Review*, VII. 387.

† Possibly the original of the present name was Tuiryakanda "Tur's Castle," equivalent to Samarkand for Salmar-kanda or "Selm's Castle."

Himālayas, the Kwenlūn of geographers; beyond which taking a direction towards the E.N.E. is the Ottorokorras range extending to the frontiers of the district as known.

Now in the last we seem to have a clue to the rendering of Ptolemy's nomenclature. We shall not greatly err in accepting Ottorokorras, as his rendering of Sanscrit Uttarakuru; in contradistinction to the Thagûron, which the name of the adjoining tribe the Ithagûri shows to have lost its initial vowel, so that we may safely restore it as Adharakuru. We have then in these two names the appellations of Upper and Lower Kuru respectively, associated and apparently derived from the two tribes mentioned as inhabiting their skirts. The word Kuru is by the ordinary phonetic change represented in Chinese by the Kiang 羌 (old Chinese Kur), who in Sz-ma T'sien's time inhabited the Nānshān, the mountainous district between Tun-lwāng and Thibet. The Ithagûron mountain is then to be found in the Altyn Tagh of Prejevalsky and its eastern continuation, while the Ottorokorras corresponds to the great snowy line of peaks forming the western continuation of the Burkhan Buddha, and called by him the Shamen-tagh. These Kiangs or Kurus seem to have been the direct ancestors of the present Tanguts, associated however with a portion of the Yuehti, who, Sze-ma Ts'ien informs us took refuge in these districts after their great defeat in B.C. 176 at the hands of the Hiungnū. Ptolemy seems to have entirely misplaced the Asmiræan mountains, and to have confused inextricably the two rivers, the Oekhardes and the Bantisos.

He goes on to tell us that the greater part of Sêrica is watered by two rivers—the Oekhardes and the Bantisos, and it so happens that all tradition Indian, Iranian and Chinese places two, or four, rivers in this position. The Vishnu Purāṇa describes the Ganges as descending from heaven on Meru, and dividing into four mighty streams flowing north, south, west and east; the two latter being the Chak-shu or rather Vakhshu*, the Oxus, and the Cīta, or Sīta; the Alakanandā, the upper Ganges flowing south; and the Bhadrā washing the country of the Uttarakurus and flowing thence to the northern ocean. The Bundahesh (chap. xx) tells of only two rivers. The Arang which rises in the country of Sûrāk and flows west through "Spêtôs (Egyptus)

* Rawlinson's Monograph on the Oxus (*J. of R.G.S.* XLII., 494.

which they also call Mesr, and they call it then the Niv (or Nil), and the Veh (Oxus) which passes by on the east, and goes through the land of Sind and flows to the sea in Hindûstân!" So even the matter of fact Sz-ma Ts'ien tells how the Emperor Wû of the early Hâns sent an expedition to Khotan to explore the sources of the Hwangho which ancient charts and books told him rose in the Kwenlûn-shân, *i.e.*, mountains of Gandhâra. West of Khotan the rivers flowed to the western sea, east of it to the salt water (Lob or Lavâpa) which had an underground communication with the Hwangho. This mythical geography lived long; the Buddhist canon received it, and Yuenchwang tried hard to reconcile it with the facts of the case*. It is no wonder then that Ptolemy's informants told him of the fabled rivers, and that he sought to find a place for them in Sêrica. The Oekhardes is evidently an attempt at transliterating Vêkh or Vêkh-rût (the Vakh or Oxus); the Bantisos apparently a transcriber's error for Badrisos, the Bhadrâ, which skirted Uttarakuru. The Sita the black, or rather yellow, river which flowed through Bhadrâçva being omitted. As the mythical rivers flowing out of heaven took no account of mountains, valleys or even of seas, so it is not to be wondered at that Ptolemy's Oekhardes took similar liberties. One of its sources is accordingly in the Altaï—the Irtysh; another springs from the Kasian range—the Ili; while yet another rises in the Asmiraean mountains, whose true position is described below. The Bantisos is however more plainly defined; its sources are, first in the Kasian mountains, the Aksai; second, in the Otrokorrâs, the Cherchen daria; and third, in the Emôdan, the Khotan river, in fact agreeing fairly with the course of the Yarkand-daria or Tarim, called also in Chinese maps the Ergou.

This confusion regarding the rivers of Sêrica may, however, afford us some means of understanding the position of one at least of the tribes misplaced by Ptolemy, and which has apparently, like the river, been duplicated; I refer to the Pîalae, or by a better reading the Piaddae which I take to be for Piaddhal, *i.e.*, Viddhal or Yuehti tribe. This tribe he places adjacent to the Oekhardes, and is therefore compelled to locate their chief town Pîala or Piadda in latitude $49^{\circ} 40'$. He, however, duplicates the name in the town of Paliana which he places $12\frac{1}{2}$ degrees east

* Eitel, *Jour. N.C.B.R.A.S.* VI., 50.

of Khoten in latitude 41° , a site which would be found in the plain adjoining the mouth of Prejevalsky's Lake Lob. This would not be true in Ptolemy's time but did represent the position of the tribe at the rise of the Hân dynasty. It had long been resident in the district between Lake Lob and Suhchow in the extreme west of Kansuh. Here on the great migration of the Chows they found the tribe settled about 1100 B.C. Here too it remained till dispossessed by the Hiungnû, B.C. 177 (Shi-ki, cxxiii) when the tribe broke up, the greater part migrating to Baktria, where for a time they associated with the Tokhars 大夏, afterwards appearing as the Ephthalitæ of the later Greek historians. A part called by the Chinese the lesser Yuehti crossed the mountains to the south of Lob Nor, and established themselves in the Nânshân between it and Tibet, where in the course of time they seem to have been absorbed amongst the aboriginal inhabitants. They are said to have been a handsome light complexioned people.

South-east of Paliana, Ptolemy places the town of Abragana which we may restore as Avarjana or Varchana, apparently from the root varch, to shine—Chinese 煌 Hwang, splendid. We therefore are fully justified in identifying it with the Chinese 敦煌 Tunhwang, the Far-shining, in Sanscrit Tanuvarchana, the Chinese adopting (as frequently happened) the native name of the place, especially where, as in this instance the roots in the two languages were identical. This situation of Tunhwang in the loess strait between the plains of Kansuh and Lobnor has at all times made it the key of the road westward, and it still survives close to its ancient site, and under its ancient name.

Some forty miles north of Paliana our author places the town of Aspakara or Aspakaea. The latitude given $41^{\circ} 40'$ does not correspond with any modern town, the nearest being Hami Lat. $42^{\circ} 50'$, while the most probable identification is with Barkûl in Lat. $43^{\circ} 40'$. The original name was probably Asvacharya, i.e., Horse-run.

Eight degrees east of Abragana was placed the town of Thogara; the name seems again a corruption of an Aryan form, in Sanscrit Dhojalya, i.e., Drinking fountain, and as such the equivalent of the Chinese name 酒泉 Tsint'swan Wine-fountain given to town and district *temp.* Wu-ti 140-86 B.C. now Suh-chow, in old Chinese Suk-chow; the word Suk apparently being a travesty of the initial syllable Dhoj. It is difficult to judge

whether the Chinese name here is rendered from the Aryan or whether both may not be transcripts of an older original. Ptolemy is here very far out of his longitude, 'Suh-chow being really only four degrees east of Tunhwang.

Two and a-half degrees further east was situated, we are told, the town of Daxata, which we must refer to Kanchow-fu formerly 張夜 Chang-yê,—Danukshetra, the Plain of the bowmen, where 夜 is for 掖 or 掖. The distance is here again exaggerated, being only slightly in excess of two degrees of longitude.

Three degrees east of Daxata and in N. Lat. $38^{\circ} 45'$ Ptolemy places the capital,—Sêra metropolis. Assuming the position given for Khotan as our starting point this would place it in 107° E. Long., or almost identical with that assigned to Ninghia, namely, E. Long. $106^{\circ} 08'$, Lat. $38^{\circ} 33'$. Singan-fu, first the capital of Ts'in 秦 or Sîn, was in Ptolemy's time the chief city of all China, but the name Sêra metropolis as apposed to Thinae metropolis was distinctly a survival of the former period. Ninghia was the Capital of the northern Kiangs, though in the previous century it had been within Hiungnû limits; it was however far removed from trade routes, and never seems to have acquired any importance as a trade centre. Notwithstanding the error in the latitude we must continue to identify the Sêra metropolis of Ptolemy with Singan-fu. It was the furthest point of which he could gain any information, and he and the west generally long remained ignorant of the great empire of which, although the capital, it was almost the frontier city.

As Ninghia was the chief seat of the Northern Kiangs, Sining appears to have been of the southern, and represented the Ottorokorra of the geographer, who however places it some six degrees west of its proper position in what would be the plain of Tsaidam. Four degrees east of Ottorokorra is placed the town of Solana; with the identification of Sining as above, Solana may be accepted as the Lân-chow of to-day. The district was formed 121 B.C. out of the territories of the Hwanyas and was given the name of Kim-ch'eng 金成 Gold-city. As the names given to towns by the Chinese were generally in the first instance translations or modifications of the native appellations, we might possibly, but that I am loth to locate an Aryan speaking tribe so far to the eastward, compare Ptolemy's Solana with

Sans. *hiranya* gold. The name Lân-chow given to the town during the Sui dynasty is probably a survival of the old name.

The districts between Lân-chow and Suh-chow were B.C. 150-120 inhabited by the Hwanyas 渾邪, a tribe of whom we learn little except that owing to their position they became the buffer between the Hiungnûs and the Chinese. Finally reduced in numbers and broken in spirit they, in 122 B.C. submitted to the latter, who formed the design of handing over the depopulated country to the Wusuns. These refused the offer and the country was partly settled by immigrants from Kwantung. The Hwanya* may be identified with Ptolemy's Garinaei whom he associates with the Rabannae or Rabbanaei who lay along the skirts of the Asmiraeen mountains; of the Rabannae I shall speak below.

The Asmiraeen mountains Ptolemy locates in Lat. $47^{\circ} 30'$, which is probably an error arising from the displacement of the Oekhardes river, and which quite dislocates his geography. On the other hand he has left a complete blank between Khotan and Tunhwang and here in about Lat. $37^{\circ} 30'$ I am disposed to place his Asmiraeen mountains. They would then tally with the range which forms the continuation westwards of the Altyn-tagh and skirts the country of Aqmardana, of which more below. This would then place the Garinaei and Rabannae in their proper place extending along the Nânshân and its continuations into Kansuh.

We have then left in their true position along the Kasian mountains the people called by Ptolemy the Issêdones and described as an important tribe. As stated at the head of these notes he has duplicated this people and given them two capitals Scythic and Sêric Issêdon. The name of Issêdon may be looked upon as a geographical survival, having been first used by Herodotus, and after dropping out of use been revived by Ptolemy. Strabo speaks of the tribes along the upper Jaxartes as the Asii and the Pasiani probably for Vasiani. Arrian, again calls them Abii, which Ptolemy in turn adopts for the Altaic tribes, probably Mongol or Turkish. In the name adopted by the Chinese 烏孫 Wusun or Vasun we probably are not far from the original sound.

* 渾 or 運 Hwan or Yun, to revolve, move to and fro Sans-ghûr-ami.
—id.

On the flank of the Asmiraeae mountains he locates the town and country of Asmiraea; I have shown above what must have been the true position of the range. Asmiraea then would answer to the Che-mo-t'o-na (*i.e.*, Aqmadhana or Aqmardana) of Yuen-chwang. Che-mo-t'o-na, Yuen-chwang states, was originally called 湟末, which Julien transcribes as Nimo, an appellation affording no clue to the name; I however take 湟 to be a transcriber's error for 渚 nau or rather ch'ek, so that the transliteration should be Ch'ek-möt for Aqmadha or Aqmarda. The Shui-king likewise calls it 且末 O'he-möt, and Remusat translating from the Chinese in his "Histoire de la ville de Khotan" transliterates the name as Tshieï-mo. Now Aqma or Aqmana is old Aryan for stone, from the former of which seems to come Turkish Yeshim, and possibly Persian Yashf, the jade stone, I say *possibly* as the Persian may have come from the Hebrew Yashpheh through Arabic, as the Greek iaspis certainly did through Phœnician channels. The original Aryan root has however a wide extension, for with the Sanscrit Aqmana we have to connect the Chinese 玉 yuk, the jade stone, the Slavonic Kamy and the Lithuanian Akmu. Now Che-mo-t'o-na we learn from the above sources lay, somewhat to the S.E. of Khōtan or rather Kiria, on the road to Lowlan the Cherchen of to-day. Either it took its name from the jade produced, Aqmadhana the jade-bearing or possibly the current name of jade was derived from the locality. The Khoten river is still the Karakash, "Black jade" while the river flowing east of Kiria was known to the Chinese as the "White jade."

With this correction we obtain likewise an intelligible position for Throana. Ptolemy places it E.S.E. of Asmiraea, but if the position assumed for Aqmadhana and its identification be correct this is impracticable. About 140 miles N.E. of the latter lies the assumed site of Cherchen, known in the Shi-ki as Lowlan but by subsequent writers as Shanshan 善善; both names, as well as modern Cherchen indicating an original Dardan or possibly Dharshana, the latter form probably the original of Ptolemy's Throana as indicated below. There is more than passing interest attaching to the locality, the first allusion to it belonging to prehistoric times. Under divine instruction Wan-wang is represented in the Hwang-i (Shi-king iii. 1, vii. as attacking and utterly destroying T'sungyung the warlike in

the great migration of the Chows. The Wan-wang-yu-sheng
(iii. l. x.) sings;

Wan-wang received the ordinance
In reward of his warlike prowess;
Having utterly destroyed Ts'ung
He fixed his capital at Fung.

The Ts'ungyung of the ballad is phonetically identical with the other names, Lowlan and Shanshan. Lowlan was always a place of importance in the early days of Eastern Turkestan: in the reign of Wu-ti of the Hân dynasty it was captured by the Chinese and its king taken prisoner, and from this time it seems to have gradually decayed owing to the encroachment of the desert. Yuenchwang in the seventh century seems to have found it much reduced; its name Shanshan seems to have been disused and the site of the town to have been removed, as he speaks of Na-fo-pu, i.e., Navapur, Newtown, as the representative of Lowlan. In Marco Polo's time it still existed, but since his time it has been practically forgotten, having dwindled down to the petty village of Cherchen, not thought worthy of record in the Chinese maps of Turkestan. If the form Dharshana be the original, Ptolemy has duplicated it in the town of Orosana (*Opocáva* as if for *epocáva*) the position given for which, three degrees west of Sining (Ottorokorra) would place it in the salt plain of Tsaidam, an impossible locality.

One other tribe the Bâtae, Ptolemy seems to have somewhat displaced, locating them still to the south of the Aspakarae, an indefinite description at best. He evidently refers to the Bôts the old inhabitants of Bod or Tibet. Ammianus Marcellinus more correctly places his Betae to the south on the highest slopes of the mountains.

From the above and the information we gain from Sze-ma Ts'ien we may begin to have a fair idea of the ethnology of Mid-Asia between the Pamir and western China about the opening of the Christian era. Between the Kwenlûn and the T'ien mountains the original population had been Aryan, and their remains even then extended as far east as Kan-chow, then Changyê, i.e., Dhannkshetra. We find Aryans in Khotan 于窠, in Khorla 扞彌 (Kiria), in Sorghul 蘇菴 (Tû-hô-lô 都貨羅 of Yuenchwang), in Asmira or Aqmardhana 且末 (折摩馱那 of Yuenchwang), Lowlan 樓蘭 (Darshana) between the Kwenlûn and Lobnor. Wan or Tayuan 大宛 (Yarkand),

of which the citadel was called 貳師成, *i.e.*, Urdu or Urdva, was likewise inhabited by Aryas, as was also Kang-ku 康居 the "Rangha upon the waters" of the Vendidad (now Kashgar), and possibly 郁成 Yuk-ch'eng, (Aksu?) of to-day. Barkul, Aspakara of Ptolemy had apparently once been possessed by cognate tribes, but at this time seems to have fallen to the powerful tribe of Wusuns or Asiani, the Issêdones of Ptolemy referred to below.

Inhabiting the Nânshân and extending to the mountains of Tibet were a branch of the Kuru tribe, the 羌 Kiangs of the Chinese, the Ottorokorrae, (*i.e.*, Uttarakurus) of Ptolemy, the 西羌 of the Chinese, while along the northern bend of the Yellow River lived the Ithagûri (Adharakurus) the (羌無弋?) of the Chinese, in the country of the Ordos and Uruts of to-day. In the former districts the descendants of these Kurus more or less direct still survive, and are known as Tanguts. They are generally described as of Tibetan affinities, but it should be more correct to describe the present inhabitants of Tibet as of Tangutic origin. According to Prejevalsky they are of markedly different stock from their neighbours, Chinese or Mongols; they are well made, and above the average height; have black hair, beards and whiskers; eyes full, unlike the Mongol type; noses generally straight, but occasionally aquiline or retroussé; the face long; the skull round, and the skin tawny. Mixed with these are probably descendants of the lesser Yuehti who seem to have amalgamated with the elder tribes as mentioned above. Whatever may be the ethnic affinities of the Kurus, tradition tells how a branch crossed the Himâlayas with the Aryan immigration and settled in the plains of Oude, where they gave their name Kurukshetra, the plains of the Kurus, to the district about Delhi. In the time of the Vishnu Purana they were remembered in Indian tradition, and the Bhadra was represented as washing the flanks of the country of the Uttarakurus on its way to the Northern Ocean.*

* In the earliest Chinese tradition these mountains were inhabited by the Sam-miao 三苗, and the country was called Sam-wei 三危. The Shun-tien (Shû ii, 1 iv) tells how Shun confined them in these fortresses, and the ancient rhythmic ballad preserved in the more modern Yü-kung sings:

三危既宅，三苗丕叙。

Sam-wei was peopled,
The Sam-miao being settled (in it).

North of the Nānshān and extending from Lake Lob eastward over the districts of Shāchow, Su Chow and Lānchow lay the country at one time occupied by the Yuehti 月氏 as they were called in the pages of Shi-ki; but who were previously, before the rise to power of T'sin shut them out from intercourse with the Chinese, known as 蜜 Mats or 蜜須 Matsus, i.e., Maddhals or Viddhals, and subsequently called by the Byzantine historians the Ephthalitae or Hephthals. When the Chows in their migration entered the plains below K'i 岐, the "Mountains," they were attacked by these tribes, whom they claimed to have utterly defeated about 1100 B.C. (Shi-king iii 1 vii). At all events Tsin preserved for centuries the drums, coats of mail and bells captured in the struggle (Tsochuan xi, 4.) We hear of them *cir.* 950 B.C. when King Kung of the Chows defeated them their territory at that time extending to the upper waters of the King river (Kwoh-yü 1.) Their name was for several centuries afterwards forgotten, owing to the defeat of the Chows by the Turkish tribes, and the intrusion of T'sin into their old territory cutting off all connexion with the west, and when next we meet with them we find them a powerful tribe inhabiting the west of Kansuh, but now known as the Yuehti 月氏. The Turks, driven back from the frontier of Shensi by the Chinese about 176 B.C. poured into the Yuehti settlements and dispersed them as above related. Both Greek and Chinese writers agree in describing them as a handsome race with light hair and complexions. What their ethnic connexions were is doubtful, but the alternative name of white Huns, by which they were known to the Greeks marks their difference from any Hunnic tribe. An allusion to the tribe is possibly found in Shi-king i, 4 iv, where a youth under pretence of gathering flowers transgresses the frontier to meet his sweetheart in the land of 沫 Mōt or Madh. They are usually classed as akin to the Kiangs 羌, but their light complexions and the fact that their towns Abragana, Thogara, Daxata, and probably Paliana are referable to Aryan roots seems to imply Aryan affinities.

Occupying the northern and western slopes of the Nānshān along the waters of the upper Hwangho were situated the tribe

Chinese tradition always identified the Si-kiang as the descendants of the Sam-miao, and here comes a curious coincidence with Hindū tradition; Kuru, the eponym of the Kurus who founded Kurukshetra, was the son of Samvarua, and the great epic of India is founded on the strife of his descendants the Kauravas and the Pandavas.

of the Hwanyas, the Garinæi of our author, whose disappearance from history I have noted above. Associated with them were the people called by him the Rabannæ or Rabbanaei. I can find no direct allusion to them in Chinese writers, but they seem to have left their mark in the local nomenclature of Kansuh. The original denomination from which Ptolemy devived his Rabannæ was probably Dravanyæ which we see in names like those of the river T'ao 洮, *i.e.*, Drav, a large affluent of the Hwangho in Kansuh flowing through the tribal territory, in the district of Lint'ao 臨洮 now Titan-chow, but a kiün in the days of Ts'in. It also seems to survive in the old territory of 隴 lung, the old name of eastern Kansuh, and in 梁 Liang-chow of the Yü-kung, which survives in the city of Liang-chow 涼州.

About the first quarter of the second century B.C. the Turkish empire of the Hiungnú or Kara-núrs had attained under the Shenyu Maotun its greatest development. It included the greater part of northern Shansi, Shensi and Kansuh to about 37° N. Lat. Maotun and his successor Laoshang were threatening the south of Kansuh, and more than once surrounded P'ing-liang-fu. Meeting with serious reverses, they commenced to move westwards, and about 177 B.C. poured down into western Kansuh and what is now eastern Turkestan. They overran the country of the Hwanyas, defeated and drove out the Yuehti, and attacked Lowlan and the Wusun. For a time their southern frontier was the Nánshân and its western prolongation into the districts about Lobnor, *i.e.*, Lavâpa, Salt water (the In-shui 鹽水 of the Chinese). Although after a time the Chinese extended their influence over these districts the Turkish elements seem ever afterwards to have remained paramount; the Yuehti never returned to their old houses, and the constant warfare between Hâns and Turks depopulated the territories of the Hwanyas. Further west the advance of the desert encroached on Lowlan and the district about Lake Lob, though even now amidst its marshes survives, according to Prejevalsky, a feeble remnant of the old Aryans in the debased tribe of the Lobnortsi, sunk beneath the level even of their Mongolian neighbours.

West of the Hiungnú on the flanks of the Kasian mountains lay a nation of fair haired and blue eyed people, the 烏孫 Wu-suns, Asii or Vasiani, *i.e.*, the Vasons from the root *vas* to dwell,

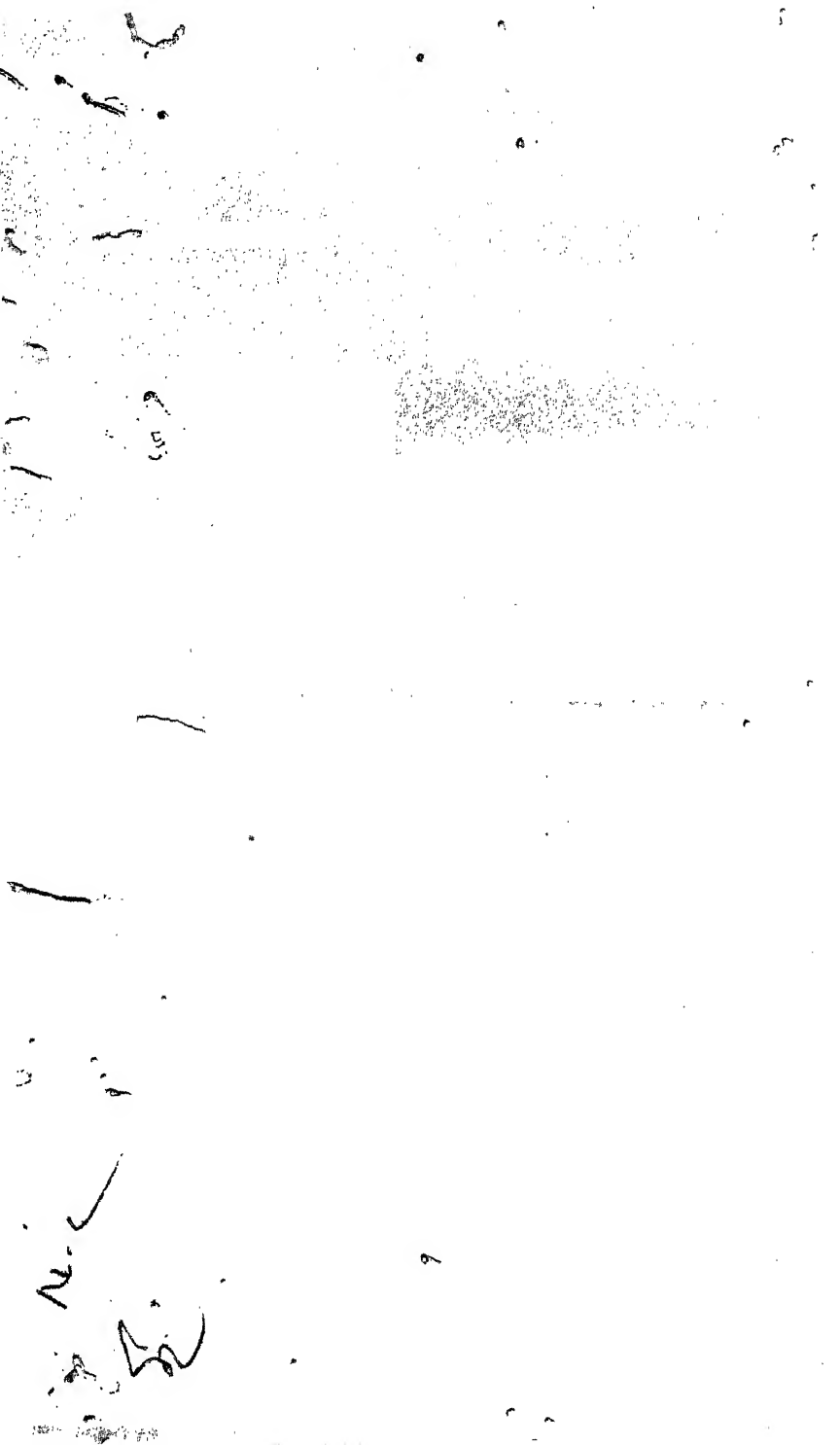
signifying simply the "dwellers." They were pastoral in their habits, and raised horses of the celebrated breed the "western paragons" 西極. Their king was known as the 昆莫 or 昆彌 Kw'en-moh or Kw'en-erh, *Kuning* compared with Sans janaka, Goth. kuning; nor are other traces of Teutonic affinities wanting; one of their leaders who fell in the battle with Alexander is called by Arrian Satrakes, i.e. Sitrik; their king when the Chinese sought to open negotiations with them was 難兜靡 Nanthorm or Danthorm, his son was 大祿 Thorluk, his grandson 岑娶 Sham-t'su, Damdir. The name of the district Rangwik reminds us of forms like Ringau, Ringkjöbing, &c., so too other names of the tribes immediately in contact with the upper Jaxartes as given by Ptolemy tell of Teutonic associations. The Süobëni, the Syëbi, the Asmani, the Sasones, the Tektosakes (? Teutosaks,) all have a Teutonic appearance, closely resembling the Swevi, the Ostmen, the Saxons and the Teutons of the European immigration. The physical features of the tribes seem to have survived amongst the Kirghiz of to-day, amongst whom in spite of their Mongol-Turkish origin red hair and light eyes are described as of not infrequent occurrence*.

In Eastern Turkestan itself, especially in the Yarkand and Kashgar districts, the Aryan type of the settled inhabitants has been remarked by all recent travellers. Shaw on his visit was much struck by the marked difference between the towns' people and agriculturists, and the moving tribes of Mongol or Turkish descent, and General Mesny has told me that on his first introduction to a Yarkandese of rank he addressed him in French, so thoroughly was he convinced of his European origin. Notwithstanding the foreign influence to which it was subject for two thousand years the Aryan type in these districts has been very persistent. In Yuenchwang's time it prevailed everywhere to the south of Lowlan, and Khotan was steeped in Aryan tradition. Shaw describes them as having long faces, well formed noses, and full beards, and describes their affinities as being rather with the Iranic than Sanscritic branch; and this coincides with what I have remarked as to Kashgar being probably the representative of the "Rangha upon the waters,"

* So we may apparently accept the name Issêdones (Essedones of Pliny) as the equivalent of Gothic Westsætones, "West dwellers," to be compared with the Istævones, i.e., West-wohner, of Tacitus.

the sixteenth best created locality. Their weakness was not physical, but lay in their incapacity for concentration : the petty kings of Kashgar, Yarkand, Khotan, Lowlan and Kushi could do little against the strongly centralized powers of China or the Hiungnû, and so by degrees eastern Arya (to devise a name for a territory never sufficiently autonomous to create one for itself) lost its independence, its language and its traditions, and became transformed into Chinese Turkestan. Had a Cyrus risen amongst the Eastern Aryans the face of modern history might have been changed ; but no power strong enough to check the Turkish invasion arose, and the dispossessed tribes poured down on Europe and destroyed the older civilization, to erect in its stead the states of modern Europe.





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